EVALUATION REPORT

January 2023

A systematic review of exclusion measures in preventing the spread of infectious diseases in education and care settings





Report information

Authors

McCraith S1, Nolan K1, Jorgensen MA1

¹ HTANALYSTS Suite 801, 46 Kippax Street, Surry Hills, New South Wales 2010 Australia

Dates

This technical report and accompanying evidence evaluation report received approval from the ONHMRC Staying Healthy Advisory Committee (SHAC) on 14 February 2023.

The protocol for the evidence evaluation was approval by the NHMRC SHAC on 14 September 2022.

History

The ONHMRC is seeking to update the evidence underpinning the 2013 Staying Healthy – Preventing infectious diseases in early childhood education and care services (Staying Healthy) resource. The NHRMC's SHAC has met twice to consider the information provided by the sector, through stakeholder surveys, email enquiries and preliminary scoping reviews of the literature. While there are many topics outlined in this resource, the SHAC has identified two key priority areas that require a systematic review of the literature to provide evidence-based guidance.

To support the ONHMRC in the conduct of the systematic review, **HT**ANALYSTS was engaged to conduct a systematic review for research question two, which focused on the exclusion of ill children, educators and other staff as a way of preventing infection.

The Research Protocol, developed by **HT**ANALYSTS in conjunction with the ONHMRC and SHAC, provided a framework that outlined the methodology to be used to review the evidence about exclusion measures in childhood education and care services. All associated materials were developed in a robust and transparent manner in accordance with relevant best practice standards (1-3).

Table of Contents

Re	port in	formati	lon	······II
Lis	t of tab	les		V
Lis	t of fig	ures		vi
Lis	t of ab	breviati	ions	vii
Ex	ecutive	summ	eary	viii
1	Back	ground		1
	1.1	Descrip	ption of the condition and setting	1
	1.2	Descrip	ption of the intervention	2
	1.3	How th	ne intervention might work	2
	1.4	Why it	is important to do this review	3
2	Objec	ctives		4
3	Meth	ods		6
4	Resu	ts		7
	4.1	Descrip	ption of studies	7
		4.1.1	Flow of studies	7
		4.1.2	Excluded studies	7
		4.1.3	Studies awaiting classification	7
		4.1.4	Ongoing studies	7
		4.1.5	Included studies	8
	4.2	Gastroi	intestinal diseases	12
		4.2.1	Description of studies	12
		4.2.2	Critical appraisal	12
		4.2.3	Summary of findings	13
	4.3	Influen	nza-like illness	22
		4.3.1	Description of studies	22
		4.3.2	Critical appraisal	25
		4.3.3	Summary of findings	25
	4.5	Rash sy	ymptomatic diseases	56
		4.5.1	Description of studies	56
		4.5.2	Critical appraisal	57
		4.5.3	Summary of findings	57
	4.7	Other i	infectious diseases	71
		4.7.1	Description of studies	71
		4.7.2	Critical appraisal	
		4.7.3	Summary of findings	
5	Discu	ıssion		83

	5.1	Summ	nary of main results	83
		5.1.1	Gastrointestinal diseases	83
		5.1.2	Influenza-like illnesses	83
		5.1.3	Rash symptomatic diseases	84
		5.1.4	Other infectious diseases	84
	5.2	Overall	l completeness and applicability of evidence	85
	5.3	Certair	nty of the evidence	85
	5.4	Potent	tial biases in the review process	86
	5.5	Agreer	ments and disagreements with other studies or reviews	86
	5.6	Limitat	tions	86
		5.6.1	At study and outcome level	86
		5.6.2	At review level	87
6	Auth	ors' con	nclusions	88
	6.1	Implica	ations for practice	88
	6.2	Implica	ations for research	88
Re	ference	es		89

List of tables

Table 1	List of conditions identified and considered in this review	9
Table 2	Characteristics and quality of included studies: Gastrointestinal disease	13
Table 3	Summary of new evidence: Gastrointestinal diseases	14
Table 4	Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases) in people with gastrointestinal diseases	
Table 5	Description of Studies: Influenza-like illness	23
Table 6	Summary of new evidence: Influenza-like illness	26
Table 7	Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with influenza-like illness	27
Table 8	Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Behaviour or practice change	52
Table 9	Characteristics and quality of included studies: Rash symptomatic disease	56
Table 10	Summary of new evidence: Rash symptomatic diseases	58
Table 11	Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with symptomatic rash diseases	59
Table 12	Characteristics and quality of included studies: Other infectious diseases	7
Table 13	Summary of new evidence: Other infectious diseases	73
Table 14	Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with other infectious diseases	.74

List of figures

Figure 1	PICOS framework for the research objective	5
Figure 2	Literature screening results	8
Figure 3	Distribution of positive rate for adenovirus and rotavirus from January to December in 2019 and 2020. (A) Positive rate of adenovirus; (B) positive rate of rotavirus	
Figure 4	Distribution of cases by date of illness onset for (A) the school outbreak and (B) the village outbreak	.21
Figure 5	Risk of bias summary: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item for each include study: Influenza-like illness	
Figure 6	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for influenze by source	
Figure 7	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for pertussis	
Figure 8	Meta-analysis of evidence on association between physical distancing and incidence of covid-1 using unadjusted random effect model	
Figure 9	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for measles by source	
Figure 10	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for mumps by source	
Figure 11	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for rubella become source	-
Figure 12	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for varicella by source	
Figure 13	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for meningitis by source	69
Figure 14	Probability density plots of log number of cases from 100 runs of the model for each of the with and without implementation of the 'send unvaccinated students home' policy cases: (a) low vaccination rate community (85%); (b) high vaccination rate community (95%)	
Figure 15	Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for hepatitis A by source	
Figure 16	Trend in number of cases of IGAS. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates	81
Figure 17	Trend in number of cases of IPD. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates	81
Figure 18	Trend in number of cases of I-CO-SA. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates	82

List of abbreviations

AHPPC Australian Health Principal Protection Principal Committee

CDC Centre for Disease Control and Prevention

CDNA Communicable Diseases Network Australia

CI Confidence interval

GRADE Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation

HR Hazard ratio

JBI Joanna Briggs Institute

MD Mean difference

MeSH Medical Subject Headings

ONHMRC The Office of National Health and Medical Research Council

NICE The National Institute for Health and Care Excellence

OR Odds ratios

PICO Population, Intervention, Comparator, Outcome

PRISMA Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses

RCT Randomised controlled trial

ROB Risk of bias
RR Risk ratio

SD Standard deviation

SHAC Staying Healthy Advisory Committee

SHIC Staying Healthy in Childhood

SMD Standardised mean difference

SoNGs Series of National Guidelines

SR Systematic review

WHO World Health Organisation

Executive summary

Background

In Australia, many children first enter education and care services at a time when their immune systems are still developing. They may not have been exposed to common pathogens and may be too young to be vaccinated against certain diseases. The spread of certain infectious diseases can be reduced by excluding a person, known to be infectious, from contact with others who are at risk of catching the infection.

Exclusion of ill children, educators or other staff from education and care services is the process of removing a person deemed unwell from a populated setting in an attempt to reduce the spread of infectious disease. Exclusion of ill children, educators and other staff is a proven method of protecting others from becoming ill at a variety of education and care services, including early childhood education centres and schools. The specified exclusion period is based on how long a child/educator with a specific disease is likely to be infectious and to be excluded from the service until they have passed the exclusion period and are well enough to return.

Objectives

The overall objective of this review is to evaluate the effectiveness of exclusion measures in reducing the spread of infectious diseases in education and childcare settings.

Alongside various prevention and control strategies, the 2013 *Staying Healthy* guidelines identified exclusion periods for 43 conditions relating to both the infectious person and those who have been in contact with the infected. The evidence for these measures was largely based on studies conducted in community settings and included literature published before 2013. The purpose of this review is to update and enhance the evidence and guidance used to inform the 2013 guidelines. That is, to identify whether any high-quality studies have been published since, or were not included in, the 2013 review, and addressed the evidence gaps noted. This was to ensure recommendations relating to the use of exclusion periods remain relevant and up to date.

Search methods

Literature searches were conducted in EMBASE, MEDLINE, COCHRANE, CINAHL and PUBMED to identify relevant studies published from database inception to 16 September 2022. In addition, simple text searches of databases including OpenGrey, Clinical trial registries, international and national agencies and guideline databases were searched. There were no limits on language of publication or date of publication in the search.

Selection criteria

Systematic reviews, RCTs and observational studies that examined the effectiveness of exclusion measures in early childhood education and care services compared to control or an alternative intervention were eligible for inclusion. Any exclusion measures were eligible for inclusion. There were no restrictions on the duration of exclusion or period when the exclusion commenced. The main participants of interest were children aged 0 to 12 and adults who were defined either as symptomatic or non-symptomatic. There were no restrictions on comparators, noting that the review stratified the evidence into two comparisons: (i) no exclusion intervention and (ii) other 'active' alternative infection control measures.

Exclusion measures relating to respiratory diseases were screened and selected in a separate review that focused on nonpharmaceutical interventions for reducing the risk of transmission of respiratory infections in early childhood education.

Data collection and analysis

Data collection was performed by two researchers, the first researcher collected data using data extraction forms and the second researcher checked the forms for completeness and accuracy. Critical appraisal of the eligible studies was conducted using the most appropriate risk of bias assessment tool recommended by the Cochrane Collaboration (according to study type).

It was intended that synthesis (meta-analysis) would be undertaken for studies that compare exclusion measures with 'no intervention', or alternative infection control interventions. For RCTs and nonrandomised studies, data synthesis was to be performed using RevMan 5.4 with combination of effect estimates across studies for each outcome using a random effects model. Due to the nature of the reported outcomes, many systematic reviews and primary studies did not include any quantitative measures of effect. As such, a narrative synthesis was presented. New evidence was assessed using the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluations (GRADE) framework.

Main results

A total of 26 studies were identified as eligible for inclusion in this review comprising 14 systematic reviews, six primary studies and six National Guidelines. All 26 studies were considered in the evidence evaluation and are included in the results. At the time of search, a further 95 studies were awaiting classification and an additional two studies were recorded as ongoing (registered protocols but not published at the time of search). Of the studies awaiting classification majority (93 studies) reported indirect evidence on the transmission and prevalence and/or incidence of eligible conditions, one of the studies was not published in English and the remaining study was not able to be retrieved and therefore not assessed. Of the two ongoing studies, one of the studies was a systematic review of which a protocol has been registered but the review had not yet been conducted and the remaining study was currently 'recruiting'.

Approximately three-fifths of the studies included in the synthesis (15 studies) compared the effectiveness of exclusion measures for preventing the spread of influenza-like illnesses, with the remaining synthesis comprised of two to three studies for other disease categories. Summary of findings tables were restricted to outcomes prioritised in the PICO. All included studies examined some type of exclusion measure (isolation, school and work closure, cohorting, quarantine) delivered in a manner that was applicable to the Australian context based on the description. Children in schools or childcare centres were the main participants for many of the studies.

Overall, the evidence found was consistent with the 2013 *Staying Healthy* guidelines. There were 11 common childhood diseases for which there was new evidence about the effect of exclusion measures on preventing the transmission of disease. The evidence provides:

- Low certainty that exclusion measures probably prevent transmission of:
 - o influenza (from two studies and one National Guidelines)
 - o COVID-19 (from one study and one National Guidelines)
- Very low certainty suggesting that exclusion measures may prevent transmission of:
 - o giardiasis (from one study)
 - o viral gastroenteritis (from one study)
 - o pertussis (from one study and one National Guidelines)
 - o measles (from one study)
 - o meningococcal infection (from one National Guidelines)
 - mumps (from one study)
 - o rubella (German measles) (from one study)
 - o impetigo (Streptococcal) (from one study)
 - scarlet fever (from one study)

Conclusions

The evidence provides low to very low certainty that exclusion measures are probably more effective than no exclusion measures for prevention or reducing transmission of some common childhood infectious diseases assessed in this review. However, for other childhood diseases the evidence provides moderate to low certainty that exclusion measures probably have little (to no) benefit.

The results of this review are generally consistent with *Staying Healthy* guidelines published in 2013, which conclude that there is an absence of high certainty evidence that exclusion measures are effective in. More research is needed to reach a definitive conclusion on the effectiveness of exclusion measures for preventing the spread of infectious diseases in childcare settings.

1 Background

The ONHMRC is updating the 2013 Staying Healthy – preventing infectious disease in early childhood education and care services resource to ensure that they reflect the best available evidence relevant to the current Australian context. This update will enable ONHMRC to provide up to date advice to the sector on the management of infectious diseases in early childhood education and care settings.

Many children first enter education and care services at a time when their immune systems are still developing. They may not have been exposed to common pathogens and may be too young to be vaccinated against certain diseases. The scope of the *Staying Healthy* resource is to provide advice on minimising spread of disease in early childhood education and care services for educators and other staff working in these settings. This includes providing advice on infection prevention and control practice and what to do in the presence of specific infections.

This review focussed on assessing what evidence was available on exclusion measures in early childhood education and care settings to reduce transmission of infectious disease and conditions.

The process for conducting the review was built upon the following framework:

- 1. source the clinical evidence by performing a systematic literature search,
- 2. identify the best available evidence published in English and indexed in English language databases,
- 3. incorporate additional literature identified through non-database sources including grey literature, reports and guidelines from reputable international and national agencies
- 4. critically appraise and present the evidence, and
- 5. determine the certainty in the evidence base for each question, using a structured assessment of the body of evidence in accordance with GRADE methodology (3).

1.1 Description of the condition and setting

Childcare regulations in each State and Territory in Australia require exclusion of children and employees from early childhood education and care settings whilst infectious with a significant, acute illness. The specified exclusion period is based on how long a child/educator with a specific disease is likely to be infectious and to be excluded from the service until they have passed the exclusion period and are well enough to return.

There are currently 43 infectious diseases listed in the 2013 *Staying healthy* guidelines with a specified exclusion period relating to both the infectious person and those who have been in contact with the infected. This includes (but is not limited to) the following:

- Candidiasis (thrush)
- Conjunctivitis
- Diarrhoea
- Hand, foot and mouth disease
- Head lice
- Influenza
- Measles
- Norovirus
- Pertussis (whooping cough)
- Rubella
- Streptococcal sore throat (including scarlet fever)
- Varicella (chickenpox)
- Viral gastroenteritis

Characteristics of the pathogen itself, the disease symptoms, and environmental factors all play a role in the risk of transmission and the duration of the illness. The current review was not limited to one disease or setting within early childhood education and care centres and therefore a concise description of each condition or problem addressed, was included after conduct of the full text review.

1.2 Description of the intervention

Exclusion of ill children, educators or other staff from education and care services is the process of removing a person deemed unwell from a populated setting in an attempt to reduce the spread of infectious disease. Exclusion of ill children, educators and other staff is a proven method of protecting others from becoming ill at a variety of education and care services, including early childhood education centres and schools. The less contact there is between people who have an infectious disease and people who are at risk of catching the disease, the less chance the disease has of spreading. Excluding ill children, educators and other staff is considered an effective way of limiting the spread of infection in education and care services and is essential in minimising the spread of infectious diseases with others who are at risk of catching the infection.

The need for exclusion and the length of time a person is excluded depend on:

- how easily the infection can spread
- how long the person is likely to be infectious
- how severe the disease can be.

Identification of whether the symptoms or a diagnosed illness have an exclusion period varies depending on the sickness experienced, with previous literature providing guidance into the minimum timeframe for exclusion. For example, children with giardiasis must be excluded until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours. Such recommended exclusion periods should not be influenced by letters from doctors with the ultimate decision residing with the education and care services with guidance from *Staying healthy*.

In addition, the recommended exclusion periods included in the guidelines are defined as minimum exclusion periods and the child/educator may need to stay home for longer until they are well enough to return to the service.

1.3 How the intervention might work

A key component of the exclusion procedure is implementation of a written policy that clearly states the exclusion criteria for parents and carers. This works to avoid conflict between parents who may find an exclusion ruling difficult, and their child's educators. Most parents will appreciate attempts to prevent illness in their children. As such, it is especially important that parents support the education and care service's policies on hygiene and infection control.

Separated by condition, a recommended exclusion period was provided for both the case and case contacts, whereby the definition of contacts varies according to the infection. For example, children presenting with varicella (chickenpox) must be excluded until all blisters have dried, which is typically 5 days from inception, alongside any children who have been in contact with the case that have an immune deficiency or receiving chemotherapy, otherwise there is no exclusion of contacts.

In addition, different exclusion periods will apply to people whose work involves food handling. If people whose work involves food handling have vomiting or diarrhoea, they should not return to work until they have been symptom-free for 48 hours and for children if the cause is unknown, there is possible exclusion for 48 hours until the cause is identified. Note that exclusion advice was consistent with the Communicable Diseases Network Australia Series of National Guidelines (SoNGs), where available.

1.4 Why it is important to do this review

In Australia, many children first enter education and care services at a time when their immune systems are still developing. They may not have been exposed to common pathogens and may be too young to be vaccinated against certain diseases. The spread of certain infectious diseases can be reduced by excluding a person, known to be infectious, from contact with others who are at risk of catching the infection.

Alongside various prevention and control strategies, the 2013 Staying Healthy guidelines identified exclusion periods for 43 conditions relating to both the infectious person and those who have been in contact with the infected. The evidence for these measures was largely based on studies conducted in community settings and limited to literature published before 2013. Although exclusion policies are time-honoured, they can have several drawbacks. For instance, parents may have difficulty in finding alternative care for mildly unwell children and may be tempted to place the children in other centres, thereby increasing the chance of the spread of infection into the wider community. Long-period of absence from a learning environment may also be an issue.

The purpose of this review was to update and enhance the evidence and guidance used to inform the 2013 *Staying Healthy* guidelines. That is, to identify whether any high-quality studies have been published since, or were not included in, the 2013 review, and addressed the evidence gaps noted. This was to ensure recommendations relating to the use of exclusion periods remain relevant and up to date.

2 Objectives

The overall objective of the systematic review was to identify what exclusion measures are effective in reducing the spread of infectious diseases in education and care settings.

Specifically, the aim of this review was to explore two key questions related to reducing the transmission of infectious diseases in child education and care settings:

- 1. does the addition of exclusion of a symptomatic child lead to lower transmission/disease rates than other infection control measures?
- 2. is there evidence for the effectiveness of exclusion for any period after the cessation of symptoms in reducing transmission/disease rates compared to exclusion whilst symptomatic?

The primary and secondary outcomes are outlined in the PICO framework below (see Figure 1) and focussed on the evidence for populations in community and care settings relevant to inform the 2013 *Staying Healthy* guidelines.

Figure 1 PICOS framework for the research objective



POPULATION

- 1. Children aged 0-4 and 5012 years who are symptomatic
- 2. Children aged 0-4 and 5-12 years who are non-symptomatic



INTERVENTION

Exclusion period (any time period)

Notes

Exclusion period from observed/notified/confirmed symptoms of any infections including fever, diarrhea, vomiting, rash, respiratory symptoms



COMPARATOR

- 1. No exclusion intervention
- 2. Alternative infection control intervention (no intervention/wait list/usual activities)

Exclusions - Pharmaceutical interventions and immunisations



OUTCOME

Primary outcomes

- 1. Transmission related outcomes (e.g., number of cases of any type of infectious disease)
- 2. Adverse events (including safety) related to exclusion or other interventions

Secondary outcomes

1. Absenteeism 2. Length of illness 3. Behaviour or practice change



SETTING

Community Settings

(inclusive of early childhood education and care settings, out of hour school care, family day care, schools, household and home settings, other community settings)

Exclusions

Settings such as aged care, tertiary, hospitals and other acute health care settings.

3 Methods

Methods used in this SR were based on that described in the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews* of *Interventions* (4) and relevant sections in the JBI Manual for Evidence Synthesis (5, 6). Covidence (www.covidence.org), a web-based platform for producing systematic reviews, was used for screening citations and recording decisions made. Covidence is compatible with EndNote and Microsoft Excel, which was used for managing citations and data extraction, respectively. Although stated in the protocol, RevMan (7) was not used in the main analyses as the included studies did not provide quantitative data suitable for meta-analysis. GRADE methodology (3) was used to derive an overall assessment of the certainty of evidence for each outcome yet similar to RevMan, the GRADEpro GDT software was not explicitly used to record decisions due to lack of evidence.

To identify the evidence base for the clinical question, a systematic search of published medical literature was conducted. All potentially relevant studies were identified after applying pre-specified inclusion and exclusion criteria as outlined in **Appendix A**. Systematic reviews, RCTs and observational studies as well as grey literature, reports and guidelines from reputable agencies were considered for inclusion.

Further details on the methods and approach used to conduct the evidence evaluation are provided in Appendix A (searching, selection criteria and screening results) and Appendix B (methods used for data appraisal, collection and reporting).

4 Results

4.1 Description of studies

4.1.1 Flow of studies

The literature was searched on 16 September 2022 to identify relevant studies published from database inception to the literature search date. The results of the literature search and the application of the study selection criteria are provided in **Appendix A1 – A5**.

A PRISMA flow summarising the screening results is provided in Figure 2. The PRISMA flow diagram shows the number of studies at each stage of search and screening process, including: the initial search; studies considered irrelevant based on the title and/or abstract; studies found not to be relevant when reviewed at full text; studies which met the eligibility criteria for inclusion in the review and the number of studies which were in considered in the analysis.

4.1.2 Excluded studies

Details of potentially eligible citations that were screened at full text but did not meet eligibility criteria are presented in **Appendix C1**, noting that some studies may have been out of scope for more than one reason, but only one reason is listed for each. Six studies were identified that met the prespecified eligibility criteria but were not included in the evidence evaluation due to duplication of data or lack of usable data for the evidence synthesis.

4.1.3 Studies awaiting classification

Completed studies identified as potentially eligible for inclusion that could not be retrieved, were not translated, or did not provide complete or adequate data are listed in the *Characteristics of studies awaiting classification* tables (see **Appendix C2**). This includes 58 studies on the transmission of eligible conditions, 46 studies exploring the prevalence and/or incidence of eligible conditions, 12 studies that include both incidence and transmission of eligible studies, one study published in a language other than English that are probably eligible for inclusion (pending translation into English) and one study that was not able to be retrieved.

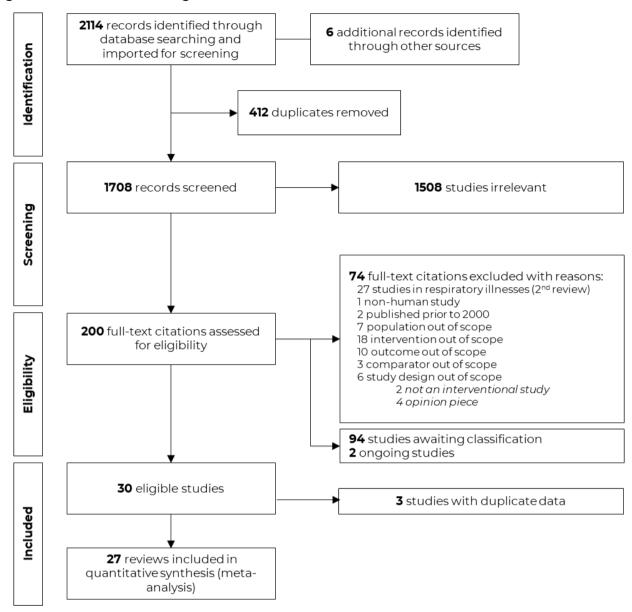
Among the 94 studies awaiting classification, all studies were conducted in common childhood infectious diseases with 14 of these comparing the effectiveness of exclusion measures including isolation, school closures and investigation into social contact patterns and their influence on disease transmission. The studies appeared to be comparable to those included in the evidence synthesis in terms of sample size, study duration, outcomes measured.

4.1.4 Ongoing studies

Ongoing studies that did not have published results at the time of the search are listed in the *Characteristics of ongoing studies* table (see **Appendix C3**). One of the studies was a systematic review of which a protocol has been registered but the review had not yet been conducted. The remaining study was currently 'recruiting'.

Both studies were conducted in children with one study comparing the effect of public health measures on infectious diseases as a whole and the other investigating the prevalence of infectious intestinal diseases. The ongoing studies appeared to be comparable to those included in the evidence synthesis in terms of population analysed and outcomes measured. Both ongoing studies included a registered protocol number.

Figure 2 Literature screening results



4.1.5 Included studies

The search retrieved 27 citations corresponding to 26 studies that were identified for inclusion. Of the 27 citations corresponding to 26 studies, there were 14 SRs or modelling studies, six primary studies and six National Guidelines identified as eligible for inclusion in the review.

All 26 studies were included in the synthesis comparing exclusion measures versus an inactive control or alternative intervention. One study reported the effect of exclusion measures across various conditions across gastrointestinal diseases, influenza-like illness and rash symptomatic diseases (Czumbel 2018). Three additional studies reported information for gastrointestinal diseases (Chen 2016, Li 2021, CDNA SoNGs 2010). There were 16 additional studies reporting information for influenza-like illness (Bin Nafisah 2018, Burns 2021, CDNA SoNGs 2017a, CDNA SoNGs 2015, CDNA SoNGs 2022, Fong 2020, Fumanelli 2016, Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014, Murillo-Zamora 2020, Rashid 2015, Spielberger 2021, Stebbins 2010, Talic 2021, Uchida 2012, Viner 2020). Four additional studies reported information for rash symptomatic diseases (CDNA SoNGs 2017b, CDNA SoNGs 2019, Chan 2017, Getz 2016) and the remaining three studies reported information on other infectious diseases including *Streptococcus* (CDNA SoNGs 2018, Högberg 2004, McNeil 2021).

An overview of the conditions identified and included in this review is provided in Table 1. Descriptions of the included studies, including an overview of the PICO criteria, a summary of the risk of bias assessment and results of the data synthesis for the main comparison can be found in **Appendix D** and **Appendix E**.

Table 1 List of conditions identified and considered in this review

Condition	Exclusion of case	Exclusion of contacts ^a	Updated evidence available?	REFER TO
Diarrhoea (no organism identified)	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes*	Section 4.2
Campylobacter infection	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2
Cryptosporidium	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Candidiasis (thrush)	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Cytomegalovirus (CMV) infection	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Conjunctivitis	Exclude until discharge from the eyes has stopped, unless a doctor has diagnosed non-infectious conjunctivitis	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Fungal infections of the skin or nails (e.g. ringworm, tinea)	Exclude until the day after starting appropriate antifungal treatment	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Giardiasis	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2
Glandular fever (mononucleosis, Epstein–Barr virus [EBV] infection)	Not excluded	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.6
Hand, foot and mouth disease	Exclude until all blisters have dried	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.4
Haemophilus influenzae type b (Hib)	Exclude until the person has received appropriate antibiotic treatment for at least 4 days	Not excluded Contact a public health unit for specialist advice	No	Appendix C
Head lice (pediculosis)	Not excluded if effective treatment begins before the next day at the education and care service The child does not need to be sent home immediately if head lice are detected	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Hepatitis A	Exclude until a medical certificate of recovery is received and until at least 7 days after the onset of jaundice	Not excluded Contact a public health unit for specialist advice about vaccinating or treating children in the same room or group	Yes	Section 4.6
Hepatitis B	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Hepatitis C	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C

Condition	Exclusion of case	Exclusion of contacts ^a	Updated evidence available?	REFER TO
Herpes simplex (cold sores, fever blisters)	Not excluded if the person can maintain hygiene practices to minimise the risk of transmission If the person cannot comply with these practices (e.g. because they are too young), they should be excluded until the sores are dry Sores should be covered with a	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
	dressing, where possible			
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)	Not excluded If the person is severely immune compromised, they will be vulnerable to other people's illnesses	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Human parvovirus B19 (fifth disease, erythema infectiosum, slapped cheek syndrome)	Not excluded	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.6
Hydatid disease	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Impetigo	Exclude until appropriate antibiotic treatment has started Any sores on exposed skin should be covered with a watertight dressing	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.4
Influenza and influenza-like illnesses	Exclude until person is well	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.3
Listeriosis	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Measles	Exclude for 4 days after the onset of the rash	Immunised and immune contacts are not excluded For non-immunised contacts, contact a public health unit for specialist advice All immunocompromised children should be excluded until 14 days after the appearance of the rash in the last case	Yes	Section 4.4
Meningitis (viral)	Exclude until person is well	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Meningococcal infection	Exclude until appropriate antibiotic treatment has been completed	Not excluded Contact a public health unit for specialist advice about antibiotics and/or vaccination for people who were in the same room as the case	Yes	Section 4.4
Molluscum contagiosum	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C
Mumps	Exclude for 9 days or until swelling goes down (whichever is sooner)	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.4
Norovirus	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion or vomiting	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2

Condition	Exclusion of case	Exclusion of contacts ^a	Updated evidence available?	REFER TO	
	for 48 hours				
Pertussis (whooping cough)	Exclude until 5 days after starting appropriate antibiotic treatment, or for 21 days from the onset of coughing	Contact a public health unit for specialist advice about excluding non-vaccinated contacts, or antibiotics	Yes	Section 4.3	
Pneumococcal disease	Exclude until person is well	Not excluded	No	Appendix C	
Roseola	Not excluded	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.6	
Ross River virus	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C	
Rotavirus infection	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion or vomiting for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2	
Rubella (German measles)	Exclude until the person has fully recovered or for at least 4 days after the onset of the rash	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.4	
Salmonellosis	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2	
Scabies	Exclude until the day after starting appropriate treatment	Not excluded	No	Appendix C	
Shigellosis	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2	
Streptococcal sore throat (including scarlet fever)	Exclude until the person has received antibiotic treatment for at least 24 hours and feels well	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.6	
Toxoplasmosis	Not excluded	Not excluded	No	Appendix C	
Tuberculosis (TB)	Exclude until medical certificate is produced from the appropriate health authority	Not excluded Contact a public health unit for specialist advice about screening, antibiotics or specialist TB clinics	No	Appendix C	
Varicella (chickenpox)	Exclude until all blisters have dried—this is usually at least 5 days after the rash first appeared in non-immunised children, and less in immunised children	Any child with an immune deficiency (for example, leukaemia) or receiving chemotherapy should be excluded for their own protection as they are at high risk of developing severe disease Otherwise, not excluded	Yes	Section 4.4	
Viral gastroenteritis (viral diarrhoea)	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours ^b	Not excluded	Yes	Section 4.2	
Worms	Exclude if loose bowel motions are occurring Exclusion is not necessary if treatment has occurred	Not excluded	No	Appendix C	

a. The definition of 'contacts' will vary according to the disease. $\,$

b. If the cause is unknown, possible exclusion for 48 hours until the cause is identified. However, educators and other staff who have a food handling role should always be excluded until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 48 hours.

4.2 Gastrointestinal diseases

4.2.1 Description of studies

Five citations (8-12) corresponding to one SR (Czumbel 2018), two studies (Chen 2016, Li 2021) and one National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2010) were identified in the literature. No additional studies were identified through other sources. There were 28 studies awaiting classification and two ongoing studies. An overview of the PICO criteria of included studies is provided in Table 2.

Czumbel 2018 was a systematic review of observational studies and clinical trials that were carried out in community setting across 28 countries (United States, United Kingdom, Finland, Spain, Japan, China, Guinea–Bissau, Sweden, Republic of Guatemala, Australia, the Netherlands, Peru, Chile, Italy, Germany, India, Republic of the Union of Myanmar, Denmark, People's Republic of Bangladesh, Thailand, Norway, Taiwan, Canada, France, Malaysia, Trinidad, Kenya, Hong Kong) and focussed on children aged from 1 month to 18 years. The systematic review investigated four key prognostic factors (1) the incubation period, (2), the period of infectiousness, (3) the duration of shedding and (4) the setting specific exclusion period across the most common transmittable childhood infectious diseases including gastroenteritis, campylobacteriosis, E. coli, salmonellosis, shigellosis, and giardiasis. PubMed and Medline databases were searched for citations between 1980 and June 2015. CDC, WHO and the American Academy of Paediatricians Red Book were used to search for reference and relevant cited articles in October 2014.

The two additional studies were carried out in either schools (Chen 2016) or a community setting (Li 2021) in China. Chen 2016 is a modelling study with data concentrated on school children and staff from a single 1400 student school in Changsha. It compared both isolation and school closure against no intervention for students and teachers with Norovirus. Li 2021 is a retrospective cohort trial that considered healthcare records for children that reported to the Children's Hospital at Zhejiang University School of Medicine from January to December 2020 and compared against a historical cohort (2019). Li 2021 compared the impact of protective measures and isolation on intestinal infection in children before and after COVID-19. Intestinal infections included primary diagnosis of enteritis, diarrhea, indigestion, gastroenteritis, and vomiting. Data on outpatient visits and intestinal infections, number of completed tests for rotavirus and adenovirus antigen assays, and the confirmed positive cases from January–December 2020 were collected.

The National Guidelines was written on behalf of the Australian Government, Department of Health and Ageing by the Communicable Diseases Network Australia (CDNA). The Guidelines are provided to assist public health units investigating outbreaks of norovirus and suspected viral gastroenteritis. They capture the knowledge of experienced professionals, build on past research efforts, and provide advice on best practice based upon the best available evidence at the time of completion.

Results for exclusions measures versus inactive control (historical cohort) for gastrointestinal diseases are provided in the Summary of Findings table (see Section 4.2.3).

4.2.2 Critical appraisal

One systematic review (Czumbel 2018) was assessed to be of moderate quality. Limitations arose due to the lack of a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias in individual studies included in the review. Given the limitations in the available evidence, the reviewers did not conduct a meta-analysis so appropriate methods for statistical combination of results and publication bias could not be assessed.

Two additional studies were judged to be of overall moderate risk of bias (Chen 2016, Li 2021). Both studies did not provide information relating to strategies used to deal with confounding factors and it was uncertain if participants were free of the outcome at the start of the study.

Details are provided in **Appendix D1.**

Table 2 Characteristics and quality of included studies: Gastrointestinal disease

Review ID Quality	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
CDNA SoNGs 2010 (12)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Norovirus or suspected viral agents	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Exclusion Isolation and cohorting
Chen 2016 (11)	Modelling study	Schools	China	Norovirus	Isolation School closure (7, 8, 9, 10 days) Isolation plus school closure (7, 8, 9, 10 days) none	Total attack rate Cumulative cases Duration of outbreak
Czumbel 2018 (ECDC 2016) (9, 10)	SR	Households, children's homes, hospital, schools, nurseries, day care centres, community parks	Various	Various childhood diseases	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness or duration of shedding Exclusion period
Li 2021 (8)	Retrospectiv e cohort	Children in Hangzhou, China	Hangzhou, China	Rotavirus and Adenovirus	2019 vs 2020 disease incidence (2020 during COVID outbreak)	Incidence of paediatric intestinal infection, rotavirus and adenovirus, and outpatient visits

Abbreviations: CDNA SoNGs, Communicable Diseases Network Australia Series of National Guidelines; COVID-19, coronavirus 2019; NA, not applicable; SR, systematic review

4.2.3 Summary of findings

4.2.3.1 Exclusion period (vs no exclusion period)

Three citations corresponding to two studies reported new evidence on two gastrointestinal diseases including Giardiasis (Czumbel 2018) and viral gastroenteritis (Li 2021). A summary of the new evidence is presented in Table 3.

Results for all outcomes were assessed to be of overall very low certainty of evidence.

Across both studies presenting new evidence, results for outcomes were judged to have serious concerns of bias relating to limitations of the evidence from individual studies included in the systematic review (Czumbel 2018) and uncertainty in any strategies used to deal with confounding factors (Li 2021). As each condition corresponded to a single study, inconsistency was not assessed (Certainty of evidence not downgraded). Similarly, there was no serious indirectness for the available evidence of each disease. The available evidence is generalisable to the Australian healthcare context. Outcomes form both diseases were assessed to have serious imprecision relating to low patient numbers and a wide range of results across both the systematic review (Czumbel 2018) and retrospective cohort study (Li 2021). As such, the certainty of evidence was downgraded. Both included studies did not appear to have any publication bias and did not contribution to downgrading the certainty of evidence.

 Table 3
 Summary of new evidence: Gastrointestinal diseases

Disease	Previous Guidelines	Summary of New Evidence	Certainty of evidence	Source
Giardiasis	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours	At the end of the 6-month followup period, no control strategy was associated with significantly lower prevalence of Giardia	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (1 study)
Viral gastroenteritis (viral diarrhoea)	Exclude until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours	The number of positive cases of adenovirus decreased from 2.7% to 1.6% under COVID-19 measures (isolation) The number of positive cases of intestinal infectious diseases decreased from 4-7% to 2-4% under COVID-19 measures (isolation)	Very low ⊕⊖⊝⊖	Li 2021

Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases)

A summary of the evidence relating to transmission in Gastrointestinal diseases is presented in Table 4.

Table 4 Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases) in people with gastrointestinal diseases

Study ID	Study design		Setting (Location)	Disease	Results				
	(no. of trials)	population			Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding	
CDNA SoNGs 2010	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Norovirus or suspected viral agents	Ill people should be sent home immediately and excluded from childcare, preschool, school or work for 48 hours after all symptoms have stopped. It is a reasonable and accepted recommendation that workers be excluded for 48 hours after symptoms have stopped.	Viral shedding in stools coincided with onset of illness and did not extend more than 72 hours after the onset of the first symptom.	Maximum viral shedding probably occurs 24–48 hours after exposure		
Czumbel 2018	SR 6 studies (1984 to 2012)	Children aged 1 month to 18 years. For exclusion measures: children attending a school or other childcare setting	Schools, day care centres, households, institutions and hospitals	Viral gastroenteritis	R2001: 24 h from last episode of diarrhea	Echovirus and coxsackievirus: Exposure 4 days before primary illness peak Astrovirus: 2 to 13 days (mean 3 days)		Adenovirus: Excretion 8 to 23 days after onset of disease (mean duration of total excretion = 4.2 ± 0.4 days) Astrovirus: range 1 to 10 days after onset of diarrhea (median 3.5 days)	
	SR 8 studies (1983 to 1996) (CDC, Red Book advice etc.)			Campylobacteriosis	RG: Exclude under conditions* R2001: 24 h from last episode of diarrhea	Range 2 to 10 days (median 2.75 to 4 days)		Range 1 to 90 days after onset of diarrhoea/visit to clinic	
	SR			E. Coli	All children excluded from	Range less than 1 to		Range 2 to 62 days	

Study ID	Study design		Setting	_	Results				
	(no. of trials)	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding	
	7 (1994, 2014)				nursery until 2 negative faecal stools (≥ 48 hours apart) effective in ending outbreak. Median duration of exclusion from childcare facilities 39.5 days (IQR 28 to 52 days); exclusion period ≥2 weeks longer than the duration of shedding in 34/150 cases (23% (95%CI 16, 30) where both duration of shedding and exclusion were known RB: Until diarrhoea resolves and results of 2 stool cultures are negative EHEC (0157): 2 negative stools	21 days (median 4 to 4.5 days)		(median 31 days) after onset of illness (IQR 17 to 41 days)	
	SR 12 (1954 to 2012)			Salmonellosis	RB: Until diarrhoea resolves R2001: < 5 y: at least one negative stool ≥ 5 y: 24 h from last episode of diarrhoea	Elementary and junior high schools: median ± SD: 80.9 ± 35.9 hours; Nursery schools: median ± SD: 64.8 ± 21.6 hours; Overall range: <24 hours to 16 days (median: 1-8 days)		Range from 1 to more than 22 weeks from exposure Age < 3months: mean 12.1 days from first positive sample Age 3 months to 1 year: 81.3 days	
	5 (1967 to 1994) (CDC, WHO advice)			Shigellosis	Daycare centre 1: allowed to return on appropriate antimicrobial therapy after diarrhea had ceased and were isolated in separate room until 2 negative successive stool cultures. Daycare centre 2: closed until	median: 2 days, range 1 to 6 days (mean: 2.3 days)			

Study ID	Study design (no. of trials)		Setting	-	Results				
		population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case	Incubation period	Period of	Duration of	
					attack rate, reduction in peak)		infectiousness	shedding	
					family running the centre had 2				
					negative successive negative				
					stool culture after antimicrobial				
					therapy. Transmission ceased				
					within 2 d after interventions.				
					RB: Until diarrhoea resolves and results of 2 stool cultures are				
					negative				
					RG: Exclude under conditions*				
					R2001: < 5 y: at least one				
					negative stool ≥ 5 y: 24 h from				
					last episode of diarrhoea				
	SR	_		Giardiasis	At the end of the 6-month				
					follow-up period, no control				
	1 (1991)				strategy was associated with				
	1 (1991)				significantly lower prevalence				
					of Giardia, although the 6-				
					month prevalence in all 3				
					groups were significantly lower				
					than the prevalence at the time				
					of intervention				
	SR			Rotavirus		Less than 48 hours		Range from 5 to 57 days after onset of diarrhoea. Some	
	12 (1975 to							shedding up to 13	
	2013)							days prior.	
								2 to 8 days from	
								hospital admission	
	SR			Norovirus	Calicivirus: Ill children excluded	norovirus: range 7 to		Norovirus: 2 to 38	
					from daycare centre until 24	72 hours (means 30		days after disease	
	13 (1982 to				hours after last episode of	to 32 hours)		onset (median: 11.5	
	2014)				gastroenteritis and closure of			days)	

Study ID	Study design (no. of trials)		Setting	Disease	Results				
		population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding	
					daycare centre for 11 ds (and additional hygiene measures). The outbreak subsided after 11 weeks, apparently independently of all the public health measures that had been taken. Norwalk-like virus: School closure for 4 ds, from d 18 – 21 of outbreak (including cleaning using chlorine–based agents). Outbreak stopped RG: Exclude under conditions* CDC: Acute phase of illness, and a period following recovery while the person is still shedding virus at high levels (usually 24—72 hours) R2001: 24 h from last episode of diarrhea	Norwalk or Norwalk- like: 0 to 2 days		Calicivirus: 0-12 days from onset of diarrhoea Norwalk-like virus: up to 22 days after onset of symptoms	

Study ID	Study design Sample size (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Disease	Results		
Chen 2016	Modelling study		Changsha, China	Isolation or School Closure	Outcome	Intervention	Comparator (None)
	te	teachers	vs no intervention for norovirus (%, 95% CI)	(7, 8, 9, 10 days)	Total attack rate	Isolation: 2.36 (2.06, 2.22)	67.45 (67.02, 67.88)
					(%, 95% CI)	School closure (7 days): 67.23 (66.80, 67.66)	
				us School clc	School closure (8 days): 67.22 (66.79, 67.65)		
				School closure (9 days): 67.21 (66.78, 67.64)			
					School closure (10 days): 2.26 (2.18, 2	School closure (10 days): 2.26 (2.18, 2.34)	
						Isolation + School closure (7, 8, 9 or 10 days):	

Study ID	Study design Sample size (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Disease	Results					
						2.26 (2.18 - 2.34)				
					Cumulative	Isolation: 32		944		
					cases	School closure (7 days): 941 School closure (8 days): 941 School closure (9 days): 941 School closure (10 days): 32				
						Isolation + School closu	re (7, 8, 9 or 10 days): 32			
					Duration of	Isolation: 15 School closure (7 days): 50		39		
					outbreak					
						School closure (8 days):				
						School closure (9 days):				
						School closure (10 days)				
						Isolation + School closu				
Li 2021		Children that	_	Impact of	Outcome	Protective measures	No protective	Risk estimate	Statistical significance	
	cohort	reported to the Children's	China	protective measures and		(2020) n/N (%)	measures (2019) n/N (%)	(95% CI)	<i>p</i> -value	
		Hospital at		isolation on				NID		
		Zhejiang University School of		intestinal infection in children before	Outpatient visits	40690 – 269465 per month	255932 – 425234 per month	NR	p < 0.05	
		Medicine		and after COVID-19	Paediatric intestinal infections incidence	1602–10818 (2.92–4.01%)	18065 to 28014 (4.17% to 7.09%)	NR	p < 0.05	
					Positive rate of Adenovirus	233/14097 (1.58%)	815/30285 (2.69%)	NR	p < 0.05	
					Positive rate of Rotavirus	1008 (7.15%)	4365/30285 (14.41%)	NR	p < 0.05	

Abbreviations: CDC: Centre for Disease Control and Prevention; CI, confidence interval; PHU, public health unit; R2001: Richardson 2001; RB: Red Book; RCT, randomised controlled trial; RG: Quick reference guide; RR, relative risk; SD, standard deviation; WHO: World Health Organisation

Adverse events (including safety) related to the intervention

There were no studies found for adverse events thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with gastrointestinal disease is unknown.

Absenteeism

There were no studies found for absenteeism thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with gastrointestinal disease is unknown.

Length of illness

There were no studies found for the length of illness thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with gastrointestinal disease is unknown.

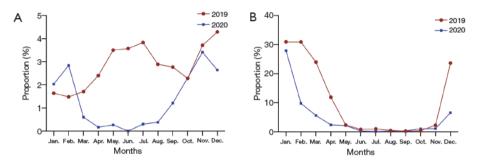
Behaviour or practice change

There were no studies found for behaviour or practice change thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with gastrointestinal disease is unknown.

4.2.3.2 Figures

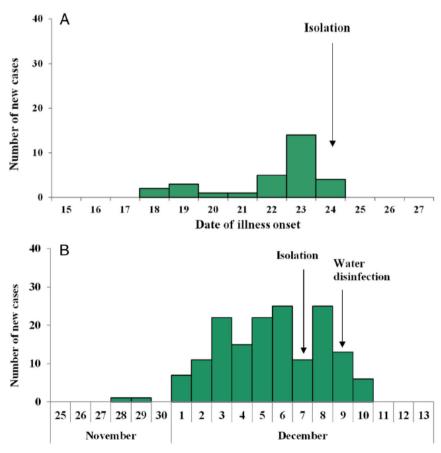
Outcome results related to protective measures for Gastrointestinal disease are presented in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

Figure 3 Distribution of positive rate for adenovirus and rotavirus from January to December in 2019 and 2020. (A) Positive rate of adenovirus; (B) positive rate of rotavirus



Source: Li 2021 (See Appendix E1.2)

Figure 4 Distribution of cases by date of illness onset for (A) the school outbreak and (B) the village outbreak



Source: Chen 2016 (See Appendix E1.2)

4.3 Influenza-like illness

4.3.1 Description of studies

16 citations (9, 10, 13-26) corresponding to 12 studies (Bin Nafisah 2018, Burns 2021, Czumbel 2018, Fong 2020, Fumanelli 2016, Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014, Murillo-Zamora 2020, Rashid 2015, Spielberger 2021, Stebbins 2010, Uchida 2012) and three National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2017a, CDNA SoNGs 2015, CDNA SoNGs 2022) were identified in the literature. Two additional studies (27, 28) were identified through other sources (Talic 2021, Viner 2020). There were 26 studies awaiting classification and no ongoing studies. An overview of the PICO criteria of included studies is provided in Table 5.

Nine included studies were systematic reviews of observational or modelling studies (Bin Nafisah 2018, Czumbel 2018, Fong 2020, Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014, Rashid 2015, Spielberger 2021, Talic 2021, Viner 2020) and included a global cohort. Three studies were conducted in schools only (Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014, Viner 2020), one study (Fong 2020) was conducted in a school, workplace or general community setting and the remaining six studies were carried out in schools, households or community settings (Bin Nafisah 2018, Czumbel 2018, Rashid 2015, Spielberger 2021, Talic 2021). Three reviews included studies that recruited school-aged children only (Bin Nafisah 2108, Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014). Two studies (Spielberger 2021, Talic 2021) included studies with any child or adult diagnosed with COVID-19. The remaining four reviews (Czumbel 2018, Fong 2020, Rashid 2015, Viner 2020) did not place any restriction on the population of included studies with participants recruited from the wider population across Europe, Asia, America, Australia and the United Kingdom. Six out of nine included systematic reviews compared the effect of school closures against no intervention for influenza (Bin Nafisah 2018, Jackson 2013, Jackson 2014, Rashid 2015, Spielberger 2021) or COVID-19 (Viner 2020). The remaining three studies investigated the effectiveness of isolation and quarantine in reducing the incidence of either influenza (Czumbel 2018, Fong 2020) or COVID-19 (Talic 2021),

Two of the included studies were modelling studies with data concentrated on school children and staff in the United States (Burns 2021) or the United Kingdom (Fumanelli 2016). One study was conducted in a school setting only (Burns 2021) and the remaining study extended to a broader community setting (Fumanelli 2016). Both studies compared the effect of either isolation versus no isolation (Burns 2021) or school closure versus no school closure on influenza and COVID-19 (Fumanelli 2016).

The remaining three studies were primary studies conducted in either Mexico (Murillo-Zamora 2020), the United States (Stebbins 2010) or Japan (Uchida 2012). One RCT included school-aged children, their parents and staff and was conducted in a multi-centre setting across 10 elementary schools. One study was a retrospective cohort trial conducted in a community setting with no restriction on population age (Murillo-Zamora 2020) and the remaining prospective cohort study included school children that were attending one of four included elementary or junior high schools (Uchida 2012). Two studies compared the effect of physical distancing (Murillo-Zamora 2020) or school closures (Uchida 2012) on the incidence of influenza-like illness and infection. The remaining study recorded the behaviour change associated with nonpharmaceutical interventions on the prevalence of influenza (Stebbins 2010).

The National Guidelines were written on behalf of the Australian Government, Department of Health by the Communicable Diseases Network Australia (CDNA) in membership with the Australian Health Principal Protection Principal Committee (AHPPC). Each of the Guidelines are provided to assist public health units in responding to a notifiable seasonal influenza infection (CDNA SoNGs 2017a), pertussis (CDNA SoNGs 2015) or Australia's national minimum standard for surveillance, laboratory testing, case management and contact management for coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) (CDNA SoNGs 2022). They capture the knowledge of experienced professionals, build on past research efforts, and provide advice on best practice based upon the best available evidence at the time of completion.

Results for exclusions measures versus inactive control (historical cohort) for influenza-like illnesses are provided in the Summary of Findings table (see 4.3.3).

Table 5 Description of Studies: Influenza-like illness

Review ID	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
Bin Nafisah 2018 (22)	SR/MA	Community, schools, households	Japan, Mexico, USA, China, UK, Australia, France, Greece, Singapore, India, the Netherlands, Argentina	Novel influenza	School closure vs no school closure	Timing of closure Delay of epidemic peak Duration of closure Effect of school closure on attack rate Relation with infectiveness and school closure
Burns 2021 (23)	Modelling study	Schools	USA	Influenza COVID-19	Isolation vs no isolation	The attack rate The outbreak duration The peak number of simultaneously infected
CDNA SoNGs 2017a (24)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Seasonal influenza infection	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Case management: Isolation and restriction
CDNA SoNGs 2015 (25)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Pertussis	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Case management: Isolation and restriction
CDNA SoNGs 2022 (26)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	COVID-19	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Case management: Isolation and restriction
Czumbel 2018 (ECDC 2016) (9, 10)	SR	Households, children's homes, hospital, schools, nurseries, day care centres, community parks	Various	Various childhood disease (comprehen sive)	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness or duration of shedding Exclusion period
Fumanelli 2016 (14)	Modelling study	Schools, households, and community	United Kingdom	Influenza COVID-19	School Closure vs no school closure	Attack rate reduction Peak incidence reduction Peak delay
Fong 2020 (13)	SR	School, Workplace, General community	Asia, Europe, America, Africa, and Australia	Influenza	isolation of ill person, quarantine of exposed persons, contact tracing, School closure (planned holiday, reactive closure or pre-emptive closure), workplace measures and workplace closure, avoiding crowing	Reducing transmission of Influenza Reducing time to peak of epidemic Reducing height of peak
Jackson 2013 (15)	SR of epidemiol	Schools	Europe, North America,	Influenza	School Closure vs no school closure	Age specific effects of school closure

Review ID	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
	ogical studies		Central America, South America, Asia, Africa, Australasia			Reversibility of the effects Changes in transmission patterns from modelling analyses of epidemic data Different school closure strategies Use of multiple interventions
Jackson 2014 (16)	SR of modelling studies	Schools	Europe, North America, Central America, South America, Asia, Africa, Australasia	Influenza	School Closure vs no school closure	Predicted peak incidence and cumulative attack rates
Murillo– Zamora 2020 (17)	Retrospec tive cohort/ cross sectional	General population	Mexico	ILI and SARS	Physical distancing interventions	Average percent change in overall daily influenza and age stratified incidence rates
Rashid 2015 (18)	SR of modelling and observatio nal studies	Schools, households and community	Canada, United States, Thailand, United Kingdom, Australia	Influenza	School closures	Effectiveness
Spielberger 2021 (19)	SR	General population	Global	COVID-19	NA	Intra-Household and Close-Contact SARS- CoV-2 Transmission Among Children
Stebbins 2010 (20)	Cluster- RCT	K-5 Elementary Schools	Pittsburgh, United States	Influenza	Nonpharmaceutica I interventions (hand hygiene, etiquette, hand sanitiser, home isolation) WHACK vs no NPI	Teacher observed behavioural change
Talic 2021 (27)	Systemati c review	General population	Global	COVID-19	Effectiveness of public health measures in reducing the incidence of COVID-19	Incidence of COVID-19 SARS-CoV-2 transmission COVID-19 mortality
Uchida 2012 (21)	Prospectiv e cohort	Schools	Japan	H1N1 infection	School closure vs class closure	Transmission of H1N1 infection
Viner 2020 (28)	SR	Schools or nurseries	China, Hong Kong, Singapore	COVID-19	School closures	Effectiveness

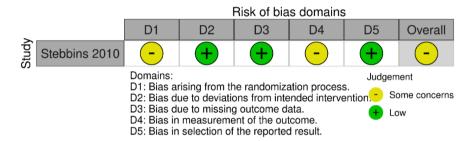
Abbreviations: CDNA SoNGs, Communicable Diseases Network Australia Series of National Guidelines; COVID-19, coronavirus 2019; ILI. Influenza-like illness; MA, meta-analysis; SARS, severe acute respiratory infection; SR, systematic review

4.3.2 Critical appraisal

One systematic review was judged to be of high quality as all information relating to review author's decisions when assessing individual studies and combining results across studies was available (Bin Nafisah 2018). Five systematic reviews were assessed to be of moderate quality (Czumbel 2018, Fong 2020, Jackson 2014, Spielberger 2021, Talic 2021). Limitations arose due to the lack of a satisfactory technique for assessing risk of bias in individual studies included in the review. Additionally, given the limited available evidence appropriate methods for statistical combination of results and publication bias could not be assessed (Czumbel 2018, Jackson 2014, Spielberger 2021). The remaining two systematic reviews were judged to be of overall low quality (Jackson 20213, Rashid 2915). In addition to the lack of risk of bias assessment, both studies also did not include components of the PICO in the research questions and inclusion criteria for the review and justify deviations from the protocol.

The risk of bias of the included RCT for influenza-like illness (Stebbins 2010) is summarised in Figure 5. The cluster-RCT was judged to have overall some concerns of bias arising due to the differences between groups at baseline and the use of subjective outcomes where participants were aware of their treatment allocation.

Figure 5 Risk of bias summary: review authors' judgements about each risk of bias item for each included study: Influenza-like illness



One cohort study was judged to be at overall low risk of bias (Uchida 2012). All required information relating to the recruitment of participants, methods for analysing outcomes and assessing confounding was available. Three additional primary studies were judged to be of overall moderate risk of bias (Burns 2021, Fumanelli 2016, Murillo-Zamora 2020). All three studies did not provide information relating to strategies used to deal with confounding factors and it was uncertain if participants were lost to follow up and no reasons or strategies to address incomplete follow up was reported.

Details are provided in **Appendix D2.**

4.3.3 Summary of findings

4.3.3.1 Exclusion period (vs no exclusion period)

Three studies (Burns 2021, Talic 2021, Czumbel 2018) and three National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2015, CDNA SoNGs 2017, CDNA SoNGs 2022) reported new evidence on three influenza-like illnesses. A summary of the new evidence is presented in Table 6.

Outcomes were assessed to be of overall low or very low certainty of evidence.

Results for outcomes from all included studies presenting new evidence were judged to have no serious concerns of bias. There was no serious inconsistency for the new evidence presented for influenza (8 studies) and inconsistency was not assessed for both Pertussis and COVID-19 because a single study contributed data. As such, the certainty of evidence was not downgraded. Across all studies, the available evidence was conducted in a school or community setting, therefore was directly generalisable to the Australian population and the certainty of evidence was not downgraded. Two studies did not show serious imprecision and were not downgraded (Burns, 2021, Talic 2021). The remaining study was assessed to have serious imprecision relating to the wide range of results reported across studies included in the systematic review (Czumbel 2018). The certainty of evidence was therefore downgraded. All included studies did not appear to have any publication bias.

Table 6 Summary of new evidence: Influenza-like illness

Disease	Previous Guidelines	Summary of New Evidence	Certainty of evidence	Source
Influenza	Exclude until person is well	Incubation period: Around 1 to 4 days (average 2 days) Period of infectiousness: 1 day before to 10 days after onset of symptom	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (8 studies)
		Duration of shedding: Reported to persist for up to 21 days in young children from the onset of illness		
		For influenza outbreaks it is recommended that isolation is maintained for at least 2 days following the last day of fever.	Low ⊕⊕⊝⊝	Burns 2021
		Isolation is not routinely required. In general, patients who have influenza should stay at home and keep away from work and school until symptoms have resolved	Low ⊕⊕⊝⊝	CDNAs SoNGs 2017
Pertussis (whooping cough)	Exclude until 5 days after starting appropriate antibiotic	Incubation period: Range between 3 to 21 days, usually between 7-10 days Period of infectiousness: Most contagious in the first two weeks after cough onset	Very low ⊕⊝⊝⊝	Czumbel 2018 (2 studies)
	treatment, or for 21 days from the onset of coughing Contact a public	Duration of shedding: Less than 7 days after onset of		
	health unit for specialist advice about excluding non- vaccinated contacts	Exclude children for 5 days while on antibiotics or 14 days (from first exposure to infectious case) if they do not take antibiotics	Low ⊕⊕⊝⊝	CDNAs SoNGs 2015
COVID-19	No advice provided	Physical distancing: associated with a 25% reduction in the incidence of COVID-19 and 12% decrease in the transmission of SARS-CoV-2 (5 studies)	Low ⊕⊕⊝⊝	Talic 2021
		School closures: 62% decrease in incidence of virus and 13% reduction in transmission but depended on early implementation (2 studies)		
		Incubation period: Median is 5 to 6 days, with a range of 1 to 14 days	Low ⊕⊕⊝⊝	CDNAs SoNGs 2022
		Period of infectiousness: 10 days after symptom onset; however, can vary based on individual factors. The commencement of the infectious period is generally 48 hours prior to symptom onset.		
		A quarantine period of 7 days reduces transmission, with majority of cases developing within 7 days from exposure		

Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases)

A summary of the evidence relating to transmission in influenza-like illness is presented in Table 7.

Table 7 Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with influenza-like illness

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Disease	Results			
	included	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
CDNA SoNGs 2017a	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Influenza	Isolation and restriction are not routinely required for single notifications. In general, health care providers should counsel patients who have influenza or ILI to stay at home and keep away from work, school and crowded areas or public gatherings until the symptoms have resolved. Children or staff with ILI or confirmed influenza should not attend school or childcare while infectious. If a child or staff member becomes ill with an ILI, they should be sent home as soon as possible	The incubation period for infection with influenza is most commonly 2-3 days with a range from 1-7 days.	Patients may shed influenza virus and therefore be infectious for up to 24 hours prior to onset of symptoms and up to seven days after onset of symptoms. Children may shed virus for ten days or more, and adult influenza patients are considered no longer infectious 24 hours after the resolution of fever without antipyretic medication.	
CDNA SoNGs 2015	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Pertussis	Exclusion from work, school, preschool, and childcare, and restricted attendance from other settings, especially where there are infants, should be recommended for cases until they are no longer infectious, i.e. until: 21 days after the onset of any cough, or 14 days after the onset	The incubation period ranges from 4-21 days, usually 7 to 10 days.	Cases are infectious from the onset of catarrhal symptoms. Communicability gradually decreases and is negligible 3 weeks after onset of cough. Secondary attack rates of 80% among susceptible	

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Disease	Results			n d d e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e
	included	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
					of paroxysmal cough (if the onset is known), or they have completed 5 days of a course of an appropriate antibiotic. Childcare setting: Children: exclude for 5 days while on antibiotics or 14 days (from first exposure to infectious case) if they do not take antibiotics Staff: not excluded while taking 5 days of antibiotics or recommend exclusion for 14 days (from first exposure to infectious case) if they do not take antibiotics		household contacts have been reported.	
CDNA SoNGs 2022	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	COVID-19	Isolation of COVID-19 cases is recommended as an effective way to reduce the spread of infection. Cases should stay at home until their symptoms have resolved. Cases should be educated about their potential to infect others for up to 10 days after onset of symptoms. PHUs should strongly recommend cases avoid entering high-risk settings (such as residential aged care facilities, disability care facilities and hospitals) until at least 7 days following their positive test result and they are well.	The median incubation period of ancestral strains of SARS-CoV-2 is 5 to 6 days, with a range of 1 to 14 days (9-11). Studies have shown shorter incubation periods for both Delta and Omicron VOCs than ancestral SARS-CoV-2.	Transmission of SARS-CoV-2 can occur from pre-symptomatic and asymptomatic people and can continue as long as they shed whole live viruses. For the ancestral strains of SARS-CoV-2, people with mild-to-moderate illness were highly unlikely to be infectious more than 10 days after symptom onset. The infectious period, however, can vary based on individual factors and the VOC.	

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Disease	Results			
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
Czumbel 2018	8 (1972 to 2013) (CDC, Red Book advice)	Children aged 1 month to 18 years. For exclusion measures: children attending a school or other childcare setting	Schools, day care centres, households, institutions and hospitals	Influenza	School closure can reduce transmission of seasonal influenza among schoolchildren. Standard class closure (2 days, carried out the day following student absentee rates due to influenza or influenza–like illness reaching 10%) is effective for mitigating outbreaks in elementary schools. Non-standard class closure* relatively ineffective at mitigating an influenza outbreak with a class, but subgroup analyses revealed that "1 day class closure" effectively interrupted outbreaks within 1 week and resulted in outbreaks of shorter duration than those controlled by "standard class closures" *different approaches (e.g. 1 day class closure carried out after 10% absentee rate, or class closures carried out ≥2 d after a 10% student absentee rate) RG: No need to exclude, unless the child is unable to participate, meets other exclusion criteria such as fever with behaviour change	Around 1 to 4 days is described, on average 2 days	l day before to 10 days after onset of symptoms in children	Influenza A - a mean of around 7 days from onset of illness Influenza B - a mean of around 6 days measured by viral culture and 4.6 days measured by antigen detection Shedding reported to persist in young children for up to 21 days from the onset of illness

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient	Setting	Disease	Results			
	included	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
	SR			Pertussis (whooping	The authors of the outbreak investigation study suggest that	Range between 3 to 21 days, usually between	Duration of shedding up to 4 to 7 weeks	Between 2 to 7 weeks after illness onset in
	2 (1933, 1988) (CDC, Red Book advice)			cough)	due to the long duration of shedding, exclusion from school for 3 weeks will not be effective. The other study suggested keep infected children at school until the first sign of catarrh or cough, to protect younger children	7 to 10 days - within the same household: 3 days, most probably 7 days; unknown upper limit	after illness onset Most contagious in the first two weeks after cough onset	those who were untreated and less than 7 days after onset of symptoms in those who were treated
					RB: Until 5 days of appropriate antimicrobial therapy course completed CDC: Until 5 days of a full course of antimicrobial treatment; Untreated: 21 days from onset of cough R2001: Treated: 5 days from starting antibiotics; Untreated: at least 3 weeks"			

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting			Results				
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Correlation coefficient	Statistical significance p-value		
Bin Nafisah 2018	SR 31 studies	NR, assumed school	schools, households	closure before or after the	Timing of closure	Timing of school closure in relation to the state of an epidemic is inversely correlated with reduction in the peak of the epidemic	r = -0.57	p < 0.05		
		wider Mexico, USA, reaction community China, UK, Australia, recception France, influence in the community of	epidemic reaches its peak to reduce overall influenza pandemic		Early closure of school in relation to start of an epidemic significantly predicted more reduction in the epidemic peak The faster the epidemic reaches its peak; the more likely early school closure would influence the reduction of its peak	β = -0.501	p < 0.05			
				Delay of the epidemic peak	The median time for school closure to delay the epidemic peak was 11 days.		p > 0.05			

Study ID	Study type	Patient	·	Comparison	Results			
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Correlation coefficient	Statistical significance p-value
			Netherlands , Argentina)			Yet, delaying the epidemic peak did not correlate with the reduction of its peak.		
						A reduction in the overall infection: mean (SD) 1.33 (0.49) to 0.97 (0.50)	t(82) = -0.250	p < 0.05
						The timing of school closures in relation to the start of the epidemic reveals no correlation with a peak delay. Hence, closure at any time during the epidemic will delay the peak		p > 0.05
					Duration of closure	The effect of school closure on delaying an epidemic peak positively correlated with the period of school closure. That is the longer the period of closure; the more likely the peak to be delayed	r = 0.51	p < 0.05
						The longer the duration of the school closure the later the epidemic peak will be	β = 0.230	p < 0.05
						The effect on the duration of school closure showed only correlation with delaying the peak and did not correlate with reduction of its peak		p > 0.05
					Closure after the epidemic reaches its peak	There is a significant relationship X ² (2, N = 83) = 7.89, on the effect of school closure on the overall infection after the epidemic peak More reduction in the overall infection was noted if schools were closed after the epidemic reaches its peak.		p < 0.05
					Effect of school closure on the attack rate	The reduction of the epidemic peak from school closure is positively correlated with the attack rate when implemented before the peak. The higher the attack rate, the more likely a reduction in the original epidemic peak will result from school closure.	r = 0.423	p < 0.05
						The effect of school closure on delaying an epidemic peak negatively correlated with the attack rate. That is, the more school closure	r = -0.479	p < 0.05

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results					
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Correlation coefficient	Statistical significance p-value		
						delayed the peak, the less attack rate would result.				
						The attack rate was lowered to a further extent when the closure implemented after the epidemic reaches its peak (M = 27.59, SD = 18.42) as compared to closure before the epidemic peak (M = 44.94, SD = 22.41)	t(73) = -3.48	p < 0.05.		
					Relationship between the duration of the	The effect of school closure on delaying an epidemic peak positively correlated with the duration of the infectiveness	r = 0.54	p < 0.05		
					infectiveness and school closure	The longer the duration of infectiveness the more likely school closure will delay the epidemic peak	β = 0.461	p < 0.05		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Intervention	Comparator
						Attack rate % (interquartile range)	Attack rate % (interquartile range)
Burns 2021	Modelling study	School children	Schools in the United States	Isolation policy (1 and 2 days) vs no	Median attack rate simulation	1 day isolation policy: 17.2 (range 9.9-21.4%) 2-day isolation policy: 7.4 (range 3.7–11.1%)	No isolation policy 24.5 (range 16.6-28.1%)
				isolation policy for influenza	Peak prevalence simulation	2-day isolation policy: 5-day peak prevalence (range: 2-8)	No isolation policy: 30-day peak prevalence (range 13-25) No isolation policy: 82 days (range 78-84)
					Outbreak duration simulation	2-day isolation policy: 67 days (range 28-77)	
				Isolation policy (1, 2 and 14 days) vs no isolation	Median attack rate simulation	1 day of isolation: 9.4 (range 8.3–10.6) 2 days of isolation: 9.2 (range 8.0 – 10.6) 14 days of isolation: 8.5(range 7.4 – 9.7)	No days of isolation 10.0 (range 8.3–11.3)
				policy for	Outbreak duration	1 day of isolation: 137 days (range 133 – 139)	No days of isolation: 138 days (range 135-140)

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results			
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Intervention	Comparator	
						Attack rate % (interquartile range)	Attack rate % (interquartile range)	
				COVID-19	simulation	2 days of isolation: 136 days (range 132 – 139)		
						14 days of isolation: 132 days (range 128 – 134)		
				Shortened school week	Attack rate	4-days school week: 6.8 (range 3.3-8.8%)	73% reduction from baseline	
				vs 5–day school week for influenza	vs 5–day school week	3-day school week: 1.8 (range 0.9-2.3%)	93% reduction from baseline	
				Shortened school week	Median attack rate	4-day school week: 4.4% (range 3.7 - 4.9%)	57% reduction from baseline (range 52-64%)	
				vs 5–day school week for COVID-19	simulation	3-day school week: 2.0% (range 1.7 - 2.2%)	46% reduction from baseline (range 33-52%)	

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results					
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Intervention Reduction range (%)	Comparator Mean	Risk estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance p-value	
Fumanelli 2016	Prospective cohort modelling study 50 stochastic realisations	School children and	Schools, households,	National school closure	Infection attack rate	5–10 %	19.5%	95% CI: 19.4–19.5	No significant difference	
		staff	and community	vs no intervention	Peak incidence	0–20 %	6.8 cases per 1000 individuals	95% CI: 5.8–7.1	difference 7.2 No significant difference 9.5 Favours intervention p < 0.0001 1 Favours intervention	
					Peak delay	0–5 weeks	13.8 weeks	95% CI: 12.1–17.2		
				County school closure vs no	Infection attack rate	5–20 %	19.5%	95% CI: 19.4–19.5		
				intervention	Peak incidence	20–70 %	6.8	5.8 95% CI: 5.8–7.1 Favours int p < 0.0001		
					Peak delay	-1-7 weeks	13.8 weeks	95% CI: 12.1–17.2	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	
				County school closure vs no	Infection attack rate	5–30 %	19.5%	95% CI: 19.4–19.5	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting		Results					
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Intervention Reduction range (%)	Comparator Mean	Risk estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance p-value	
				intervention	Peak incidence	17–80 %	6.8	95% CI: 5.8–7.1	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	
					Peak delay	0–4 weeks	13.8 weeks	95% CI: 12.1–17.2	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	
				County school closure vs no	Infection attack rate	8–20 %	19.5%	95% CI: 19.4–19.5	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	
					Peak incidence	25–60%	6.8	95% CI: 5.8–7.1	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	
					Peak delay	-1-6 weeks	13.8 weeks	95% CI: 12.1–17.2	Favours intervention p < 0.0001	

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
Fong 2020	SR 4 cohort studies 11 simulation studies	Community	School, workplace, general community	Isolating ill persons	Reduction of impact of influenza outbreak Delay of epidemic peak Reduction in transmissibility	Reduction of impact: 8 studies suggested a decrease in attack rate brought by implementation of case isolation 4 studies suggest intervention is more impactful in combination with other interventions. Increase in isolation rate is quasi-linearly correlated with a decrease in attack rate of influenza. Delay of the epidemic peak: 3 studies showed evidence isolating ill persons will delay the spread and peak of influenza epidemics Reduction in transmissibility: 4 studies showed evidence isolating ill persons will reduce transmissibility of influenza and reduce reproduction numbers for influenza.	Isolation has moderate impact in reducing influenza transmission and impact
	1 intervention study, 5			Quarantine of exposed	Reduction of impact of	Reduction of impact: 5 studies suggested reduction in attack rate with	Quarantine has in general a moderate

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results				
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions		
	observational studies and 10 simulation studies			persons	influenza outbreak Delay of epidemic peak Reduction in transmissibility	implementation of household quarantine measures Delay of epidemic peak: 4 studies found quarantine is effective at reducing peak and number of cases in a pandemic if compliance is high. One study found border quarantine causes minimal reduction in the number of cases. Transmissibility: 3 studies found household and border quarantine reduce transmission of influenza. Increased risk for household contacts: 2 studies reported increased risk of secondary cases of influenzas in households where people a concurrently quarantined with an isolated individual.	impact in reducing influenza transmission and impact		
	4 simulation studies			Contact tracing	Reduction of impact of influenza outbreak Delay of epidemic peak Reduction in transmissibility	None of the 4 studies examined contact tracing as a single intervention, this measure was studies in combination with other interventions e.g., quarantine. Reduction of impact: 1 study suggested contact tracing (in combination with other interventions) will reduce the impact of influenza outbreak. Another study found it provides only modest benefit. And a third study found no effect. Delay of epidemic peak: 1 study found contact tracing (in combination with other interventions) will delay epidemic peaks for up to 6 weeks. Reduction in transmissibility: 1 study showed evidence for contact tracing and quarantine was more effective than symptom monitoring and quarantine to reduce influenzas transmissibility.	Combination of contract tracing with other measures (e.g., isolation and quarantine) can reduce influenza, transmission and impact; the addition of contact tracing to existing measures might provide only modest benefit but will need substantial resources		
	22 studies (since Jackson 2013)			School closure (planned holiday, reactive		16 studies demonstrated that reactive school closure could be a useful control measure during influenza epidemics or pandemics, with impacts that included reducing the incidence and reducing the peak size 7 studies reported a reduction in number of confirmed or	The transmission of influenza decreases during routine school holidays but might increase after schools		

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results				
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions		
	13 pre-			closures or		influenza like illness cases	reopen. The		
	emptive school closure 16 reactive school closures 28 planned holidays			pre-emptive closure)		2 studies reported a reduction in total infected cases/peak of epidemic curve 2 studies reported no significant difference b/w the attack rate in closed and not closed schools 2 studies showed absenteeism was lower after school reopening compared with before school closure 3 studies found school closure reduced transmission rate of influenza. 1 study found a reactive closure after 27% of students had symptoms was not effective. 13 studies found pre-emptive school closure could delay epidemic peak and reduce transmission 8 showed that planned holidays could reduce influenza transmission 17 observation studies also reported a reduction in incidence of influenza associated with planned school holidays	effectiveness of reactive school closure varies. Pre-emptive school closures have moderate impact in reducing influenza transmission		
	Update to Ahmed 2018 SR Workplace measures: 18 intervention, observational or simulation studies Workplace closures: 10 simulation studies			Workplace measures and workplace closures		6 studies showed working from home/ smaller work units/ staying home while sick (paid sick leave) reduces influenza transmission 12 simulation studies on workplace measures revied by Ahmed et al 2018 suggested that workplace measure alone reduced the cumulative attack rate by 23%, as well as delaying and reducing the peak influenza attack rate. Workplace closures: 10 simulations studies suggested the reduction in attack rate, duration of infection or maximum case number.	Workplace measures are effective; combination with othe interventions will further strengthen the effect Workplace closures might have a modest impact in reducing influenza transmission		
	3 observational			Avoiding crowding		Avoiding crowding refers to the measures to reduce influenza transmission in crowded areas (e.g., large meetings,	Timely and sustained application of		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
	studies					conferences, and religious pilgrimages, national and international events). Studies suggested early intervention of measures to avoid crowding will reduce the impact of the epidemic.	measures to avoid crowding might reduce influenza transmission
Jackson	SR of	School	School	School	Outcome	Narrative summary	
2013	epidemiologic al studies	children and general population	settings	closures	Age specific effects of school closure	The available age-specific data suggested that any benefits associated with school closure were greatest among schoolaged children	
					Reversibility of the effect	Incidence sometimes rebounded when schools reopened, suggesting that school closure contributed to reducing incidence in some settings.	
					Changes in transmission patterns from modelling analyses of epidemic data	School holidays/closure reduced transmission of seasonal influenza amongst children (unless school closure occurs after peak of outbreak)	
					Different school closure strategies	The effects of these different strategies could not be compared, due to both late implementation and differences between the studies in other factors (such as the duration of closure).	
					Use of multiple interventions	In most of the pandemic influenza studies, other interventions were implemented alongside school closure and may have contributed to any reduction in incidence	
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	School closure vs. No	Outcome	Narrative summary	Study ID
2014	studies	IIIIIIIIIIIII	workplaces,	school closure	Predicted	Reduced by ~45% (permanent closure) or ~12% (13-day closure)	Yasuda 2005
			pre-schools, playgroups, household,		reduction in the peak incidence	Decreased by 25–33%, depending on R_{o} . Duration of closure has little effect.	Ferguson 2006
			household, day care		of infection (28 studies)	Decreased by ~30% if schools are closed for 14 days when prevalence reaches 10%	Haber 2007
						Decreased by 39-45% (47-52% in children). Reductions were smaller than this if schools closed at a higher threshold, e.g., 21%	Cauchemez 2008

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results				
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions		
						if threshold was 100 / 100,000 / day			
						Decreased by ~23% if schools closed after 1–3 weeks, or by ~38% if schools closed after 4 weeks	Yasuda 2008		
						First wave peak AR decreased by ~98%; second wave peak AR 50–100% smaller than the unmitigated single peak, depending on vaccine properties.	Mniszewsk 2008		
						Reduced by 32–78%, depending on R_0 (greater reduction for lower R_0)	Milne 2008		
						If R_0 =1.5, decreased by ~80% if delay is up to 4 weeks. If R_0 =2.5, decreased by ~33% for delays of 3 weeks or less	Kelso 2009		
						Effects ranged from a decrease of 26% to an increase of 3%, depending on timing and duration of closure	Yasuda & Suzuki 2009		
						Ranged from a reduction of 63.2% (if R_0 was 1.4) to an increase of 9.2% (if R_0 was 2.4)	Lee 2009		
						Peak prevalence reduced by ~67% if schools closed permanently; if schools reopened after 60 days, epidemic was bimodal, with the first and second peaks in prevalence ~33% and 50%	Chao 2010		
						Peak prevalence reduced by ~5% by county-wide closures or ~26% by local closures	Chao 2011		
						Reduced by \sim 13% (school case isolation), \sim 23% (individual school closure) or \sim 7% (all school closure) if closed for 1 week; individual school closure resulted in greater reductions with longer periods of closure (e.g. \sim 63% with 4-week closure)	Halder 2010		
						For each antiviral strategy, adding school closure reduced the peak incidence by up to 50% compared to using antivirals alone (assuming no delay in diagnosis; effects decreased as delay increased	Kelso 2010		
						Maximum reduction of 73% (R_0 = 1.5) or 38% (R_0 = 2.5), depending on timing and duration of closure	Halder 2010		
						Peak prevalence in children reduced by ~78% compared to the	Barrett 2011		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results					
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions			
						scenario with preventive behaviours only. No clear effect for adults or elderly.				
						Reduced by 28.9%	Yang 2011			
						Reduced by ~0–27% depending on threshold and duration of closure. Increasing duration of closure has little effect if it is 4 weeks or longer	Zhang 2011			
						Reduced by 48%	Morimoto & Ishikawa 2010			
						Decreased by up to 28% by school closure alone	Zhang 2012			
						Decreased by ~90% if only schools closed, or by ~97% if schools and workplaces closed	Carrat 2006			
						Reduction of 94% if children and teenagers were kept at home and compliance was 90%	Glass 2006			
						Peak prevalence reduced by 38% if control measures relaxed or 67% if control measures not relaxed	Cruz-Pacheco 2009			
						Decreased by \sim 0–60%, depending on R ₀ , baseline mixing patterns, reduction in contacts and closure threshold	Vynnycky & Edmunds 2008			
						Reduced by 30–70%; size of reduction increased with increasing duration of closure and increasing $R_{\rm 0}$	House 2011			
						Peak prevalence reduced by ~80% (low transmission scenario) or ~88% (high transmission scenario)	Araz 2012			
						First wave: reduced by ~38%. Second wave: reduced by ~95%	Ghosh & Hefferman 2010			
						First wave, school aged children: reduced by ~70% in Alberta and Calgary, very little effect in Edmonton	Earn 2012			
						Decreased by ~10–70% depending on age–specific attack rates and $\ensuremath{R_0}$	Glass & Barnes 2007			
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	School closure vs. No	Predicted percentage	Reduced by 90% if schools never opened, or by 20% with one week closure	Elyeback 1976			

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
(cont'd)	studies		workplaces, pre-schools,	school closure	reduction in the	>90% chance of eliminating epidemic if R ₀ ≤ 1.7	Ferguson 2005
			playgroups, household,		attack rate (28 studies)	Reduced by 12% (10% in adults, 17% in children, permanent closure) or essentially unchanged (13-day closure)	Yasuda 2005
			day care			If R_0 =2.0, decreased by 6–9%. If R_0 =1.7, decreased by 11–15% Longer closures were associated with slightly increased reductions.	Ferguson 2006
						Predicted reduction ranged from 14% (if R_0 = 2.4) to 97% (if R_0 = 1.6)	Germann 2006
				Decreased by ~1–18%, depending on threshold and duration of closure: greater effect at lower thresholds; effect of duration of closure less clear	Haber 2007		
						Decreased by 13–17% (18–23% in children); greater reduction if schools closed at lower threshold. Reductions were smaller than this if schools closed at a higher threshold, e.g., 10% if threshold was 100 / 100,000 / day	Cauchemez 2008
						Changed by <10% for all closure thresholds	Yasuda 2008
						Total AR (first and second waves) reduced by 28–96%, depending on vaccine properties	Mniszewsk 2008
						Decreased by 8–61%, depending on $R_{\text{\tiny 0}}$ (greater reduction for lower $R_{\text{\tiny 0}})$	Milne 2008
						If R_0 =1.5, reduced by ~60% if delay is up to 3 weeks. For R_0 = 1.5 and pre-emptive closure, reductions in cumulative AR were ~57% (0–5 years), 64% (6–12 years) 66% (13–17 years)	Kelso 2009
						Decreased by 22% (from 50% to 39%)	Sander 2009
						Reduced by 89%	Sypsa & Hatzakis 2009
						Ranged from an increase of 0.7% to a decrease of 17%, depending on timing and duration of closure	Yasuda & Suzuki 2009
					Ranged from a reduction of 44.7% (if R_0 was 1.4) to an increase of 1.7% (if R_0 was 1.7)	Lee 2009	

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
						Both strategies "did not elicit any substantive decrease" (this is not quantified further).	Chao 2011
						Reduced by ~8% (school case isolation or individual school closure) or ~2% (all school closure) if closed for 1 week; individual school closure resulted in greater reductions with longer periods of closure (e.g. ~23% with 4-week closure)	Halder 2010
						For each antiviral strategy, adding school closure reduced the cumulative AR by ~20–30% compared to using antivirals alone (assuming no delay in diagnosis; effects decreased as delay increased)	Kelso 2010
						Maximum reduction of 42% (R_0 = 1.5), 18% (R_0 = 2.0), 8% (R_0 = 2.5) depending on timing and duration of closure. Optimal threshold depended non-linearly on duration of closure.	Halder 2010
						Reduced by 40% compared to the scenario with preventive behaviours only	Barrett 2011
						Reduced by 30% overall. Effect largest in adults (40% reduction) and smallest in schoolchildren (22% reduction)	Andradittir 2011
						Reduced by 4.2%	Yang 2011
						Reduced by <10% for all combinations of closure threshold and duration	Zhang 2011
						Reduced by 14%	Morimoto & Ishikawa 2011
						Reduced by 35–75% if Rn = 1.2, \sim 28–64% if Rn = 1.5, or \sim 18–42% if Rn = 1.8. Larger reductions with longer duration of closure	Halder 2011
						Decreased by up to 9% by school closure alone	Zhang 2012
						Decreased by 79% if only schools closed, or by 98% if schools and workplaces closed	Carrat 2006
						Reduction of 93% if children and teenagers were kept at home and compliance was 90%	Glass 2006

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
						Reduced by 66% (if R ₀ = 1.6) or 12% (R ₀ = 2.1)	Perlroth 2010
						If R_0 = 1.1, cumulative AR is close to zero (and R<1) if transmission in schools is reduced by 37%	Roberts 2007
						Decreased by <1% if intervention implemented 2 or 4 weeks after start of pandemic, or by 2.6% if after 8 weeks	Rizzo 2008
						Decreased by <1% to ~24%, depending on R_0 , baseline mixing patterns, reduction in contacts and closure threshold	Vynnycky & Edmunds 2008
						For low transmission scenario, reduction in cumulative AR was 5–94% in children aged 5–18 years. For high transmission scenario, reduction in cumulative AR was –3 to 86% for children aged 5 to 18 years	Araz 2012
						First wave: reduced by ~45%. Second wave: reduced by ~77%	Ghosh & Hefferman 2010
						Calgary: reduced by ~28%; Edmonton: reduced by ~35%; Alberta: reduced by ~52%	Earn 2012
						Maximum reduction of ~11% (if schools closed for 4 weeks starting from week 5 and attack rate in children was 3 times that in adults)	Bolton 2012
						If schools are closed when prevalence in schoolchildren is 2%, decreased ~4–64% depending on age–specific attack rates and $R_{\rm 0}$	Glass & Barnes 2007
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	closure vs. No	on time to the	Increased by ~25% from 20 to 25 days (permanent closure) or ~35% from 20 to 27 days (13-day closure)	Yasuda 2005
(cont'd)	studies		workplaces, pre-schools,	school closure	epidemic (28	Delayed by 9–16 days, depending on R_0 and the proportion of workplaces closing	Ferguson 2006
			playgroups, household, day care		studies)	Peak occurs 1 week earlier if schools are closed for 14 days when prevalence reaches 10%, compared to the no intervention scenario; no results presented for longer durations of closure.	Haber 2007
						Increased by 5–8 days (2.5–8.8%) depending on transmissibility (greater delay for higher R_0)	Ciofi degli Atti 2008

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
						If schools were closed 1–2 weeks after the start of the epidemic, peak delayed by 2–3 weeks; otherwise the epidemic curve became bimodal, with the larger peak occurring 3 weeks after (if schools closed after 3 weeks) or 1 week before (if closed after 4 weeks) the peak for the unmitigated epidemic	Yasuda 2008
						Reduced by ~1 week (for peak of first wave)	Mniszewski 2008
						If R_0 =1.5, delayed by ~17 days for delays up to 4 weeks. If R_0 =2.5, peak is delayed 5–12 days if closure is pre-emptive or within 2 weeks, otherwise little effect.	Kelso 2009
						Delayed by 1–2 weeks, depending on timing and duration of closure (compared to scenario with self-isolation alone)	Yasuda & Suzuki 2009
						Could be delayed by up to 28 days if R_0 = 1.4 and whole school system is closed for 8 weeks at a threshold prevalence of 1% or less	Lee 2009
						Peak prevalence delayed by ~24 days; the second peak occurs ~10 days later (when schools are closed for 60 days)	Chao 2010
						County-wide closures delayed the peak by ~1 week; local closures by ~4–5 weeks	Chao 2011
						No apparent effect of school case isolation; individual or all school closure delayed peak by ~10 days	Halder 2010
						Delayed by ~40 days for each antiviral strategy	Kelso 2010
						Maximum delay ~45 days (if R_0 = 1.5, schools closed for 8 weeks, and closure was optimally timed). Smaller delays were possible with higher values of R_0	Halder 2010
						Epidemic becomes bimodal. For children, peaks with school closure occur ~14 days before and ~3 days after the peak in the scenario with preventive behaviours only	Barrett 2011
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	School closure vs. No		Delayed by 8 days	Yang 2011
(cont'd)	studies	minications	workplaces,	school closure		Delayed by up to 5 days	Zhang 2011

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
			pre-schools, playgroups,			Delayed by 45 days	Morimoto & Ishikawa 2010
			household, day care			Peak delayed by 5 days by school closure alone	Zhang 2012
						No appreciable effect if only schools closed; peak is ~25 days earlier if schools and workplaces are closed	Carrat 2006
						Reduction of 19 days if children and teenagers were kept at home and compliance was 90%	Glass 2006
						Delayed by ~1 week	Cruz-Pacheco 2009
						Delayed by 1–2 weeks if R_0 = 1.8 or 2.5	Vynnycky & Edmunds 2008
						Peak brought forward by ~60 days (low transmission scenario) or ~35 days (high transmission scenario)	Araz 2012
						First wave: no effect. Second wave: delayed by ~50–60 days	Ghosh & Hefferman 2010
						Delayed by ~1 month	Earn 2012
						Delayed by up to two weeks	Bolton 2012
						Delayed by 1–15 weeks, depending on age–specific attack rates and $\ensuremath{\text{R}}_0$	Glass & Barnes 2007
					on duration of	Increased by ~40% from 50 to 70 days (permanent closure) or ~20% from 50 to 60 days (13-day closure)	Yasuda 2005
					the epidemic (28 studies)	Slight increase (~1 week) if schools are closed for 14 days when prevalence reaches 10%	Haber 2007
						Increased by ~4% weeks for all closure thresholds	Yasuda 2008
						First wave duration increased by ~40 days; second wave may begin ~6 months after the end of the first and last for ~90 days	Mniszewski 2008
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	School closure vs. No		If R ₀ =1.5, increased by up to ~30 days; if R ₀ =2.5, increased by up to ~10 days	Kelso 2009
(cont'd)	studies			school closure		Shortened by 11 days	Sypsa & Hatzakis 2009

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results		
	(no. of trials) included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary	Main findings/ authors conclusions
			pre-schools, playgroups,			Difficult to assess precisely from graphs presented, but suggests an increase is likely (~10–20 days)	Lee 2009
			household, day care			County-wide closures had little effect on duration; local closures increased the duration of the epidemic, but it is not clear by how much.	Chao 2011
						Possible slight increase of ~10 days for all strategies.	Halder 2010
						Increased by up to 40 days, depending on antiviral strategy	Kelso 2010
						Markedly increased, particularly for low values of R ₀	Halder 2010
						Shortened by ~20 days in children	Barrett 2011
						Increased by 2 weeks	Yang 2011
						Increased by ~70 days	Morimoto & Ishikawa 2010
						Increased by ~30% if only schools are closed, or reduced by ~60% if schools and workplaces are closed	Carrat 2006
						Reduction of 20 days if children and teenagers were kept at home and compliance was 90	Glass 2006
						Increased by 2–3 weeks if contact rate recovers instantaneously when controls are lifted	Cruz-Pacheco 2009
						Little or no effect for high R_0 or if reduction in contact is \leq 50%. If $R_0\sim$ 1.8, increased by up to 70% and 40% if schools are closed early or late, respectively	Vynnycky & Edmunds 2008
						Reduced by ≥75 days (low transmission scenario) or increased by ≥25 days (high transmission scenario)	Araz 2012
Jackson 2014	SR/MA of modelling	No limitations	Community, schools,	School closure vs. No		First wave: no effect. Second wave: effect unclear	Ghosh & Hefferman 2010
(cont'd)	studies		workplaces, pre-schools,	school closure		Duration of first wave increased by up to ~1 month	Earn 2012
			playgroups, household,			Increased by 20–75% (1–3 weeks) depending on age–specific attack rates and $\ensuremath{\text{R}}_0$	Glass & Barnes 2007

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient	Setting	Comparison	Results			
	included	population	(Location)		Outcome	Narrative summary		Main findings/ authors conclusions
			day care					
Murillo– Zamora 2020	Retrospective cohort	Subjects from all ages registered with ILI or severe acute respiratory infection (SARI)	Community in Mexico	Physical distancing interventions including school closures vs historical cohort	Average percentage of change in overall daily influenza for children aged 5-14 School closures implemented on March 16th	Comparator Jan 21 – Mar 15: 1.8 (1.5, 2.1) Mar 16 – Mar 30: -1.3 (-1.8, -0.9)	Intervention Oct 1 – Jan 20: -11.7 (-15.7, -7.6)	Statistical significance NR
Rashid 2015	SR of modelling and observational	No restriction	Schools, households and community		Intervention Proactive school closure	Narrative Summary Reduction in influenza transmis Delays the peak of the epidemi		
	studies		Community		Reactive school closure	Reactive school closures may re influenza by about 7–15%, rarely	educe the transmission of	
					Workplace closure	Modelling study suggests that modest impact while 33% work rate to less than 5% and delays	place closure lessens the attack	
					Home working	It is moderately effective in reduby about 20% to 30%.	ucing transmission of influenza	
					Self-isolation of cases	There are limited data, overall e moderate; may delay the peak with other measures.		
					Quarantine of contacts	Modelling studies show that qu load, attack rate, and delays the	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
					Mobility restrictions	Modelling studies suggest that delays the peak of influenza. A I helpful.		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting	Comparison Transmission of COVID-19	Results	Results				
	included	, population	or Household		Outcome	Narrative summary		Main findings/ authors conclusions		
					Cancellation of mass events	Effectiveness is not proven but may be of theoretical benefit if cancelled around the peak of the epidemic.				
2001	18 studies adult, with	· ·			Pooled secondary	Children: 3.40% (95%CI 5.7-21.1)	Adults 12.32% (95% CI 8.29-16.4)	NR		
io studies		infection school	schools, adults kindergarte	adults		gh heterogeneity, the analysis did cant differences regarding the id adults with SARS-CoV2				
	11 studies	- SJ 1 SIX			Seroprevalence	and population-based PCR stu susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 t conducted when contact rest	ne lower seroprevalence is likely	NR		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Population	Setting (Location)	Intervention	Results				
	(iio. or trials)		(Location)		Outcome (No. studies)	Narrative summary	Risk Estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance Heterogeneity	
Talic 2021	SR/MA of empirical studies	Population at risk and affected by COVID-19	Community	Physical distancing	COVID-19 incidence (5 studies)	25% reduction in incidence of covid-19	RR: 0.75 (95% CI 0.59, 0.95)	I ² =87% Heterogeneity among studies was substantial, and risk of bias ranged from moderate to serious or critical	
					Transmission of SARS-CoV-2 (23 studies)	12% decrease in SARS-CoV-2 transmission and 62% reduction in overall physical contacts	RR: 0.88, (95% CI 0.86, 0.89)	Both studies were rated at moderate risk of bias	
					COVID-19 mortality (1 study)	Reduction in covid-19 related mortality	β -0.07 (95% CI -0.05, -0.10)	p < 0.001 Study rated at serious or critical risk of bias	

Study ID	Study type	Population	Setting	Intervention	Results			
	(no. of trials)		(Location)		Outcome (No. studies)	Narrative summary	Risk Estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance Heterogeneity
				Stay at home or isolation	COVID-19 incidence (4 studies)	All the studies that assessed stay at home or isolation measures reported reductions in transmission of SARS-CoV-2. 74% reduction in the average daily number of contacts observed for each participant and estimated a decrease in reproductive number: the reproductive number pre-intervention was 3.6 and post-intervention was 0.60	95% CI 0.37, 0.89	
				Quarantine	Transmission of SARS-CoV-2 (2 studies) Al-Tawfiq 2020 Vanman 2021	4.9% decrease in the incidence of covid-19 at eight weeks after the implementation of quarantine 14 times higher risk of SARS-CoV-2 transmission associated with no quarantine compared with strict quarantine	OR: 14.44 (95% CI 2.42 to 86.17)	Both studies rated low to moderate risk of bias
				School closures	COVID-19 incidence (2 studies) Iwata 2020 Auger 2020	One study reported 62% decrease One study reported no effect of school closures on incidence of COVID-19	95% CI -49, -71 α coefficient 0.08, 95% CI -0.36 to 0.65	Both studies were rated a moderate risk of bias
					COVID-19 mortality (1 study)	58% decrease	95% CI -46, -68	Moderate risk of bias
					Transmission of SARS-CoV-2 Liu 2020 Guo 2021	Reduction of 13% Reduction of 10%	RR: 0.87 (95% CI 0.86 to 0.89)	All studies were rated at moderate risk of bias
							RR: 0.9 (95% CI 0.86 to 0.93)	

Study ID	Study type	Population	Setting	Intervention	Results			
	(no. of trials)		(Location)		Outcome (No. studies)	Narrative summary	Risk Estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance Heterogeneity
Uchida 2012	Prospective cohort	School children	57 classes across two	School closure vs	Cumulative rate of infection	876/2141 (40.9%)		
			elementary schools and two junior high schools	class closure	Median duration of absence from school	5 days (range 2 to 16)		
					Duration of closure	40 class closures a total of 53 times median duration of 4 days (range 1 to 10 days)		
					Number of patients	Elementary Schools: School closures in district A and the class closures in district B had similar effects on subsequent peaks throughout the study period.		No significant difference
						Junior Schools: Infection peak in November followed by another large peak in December 2009		Favours intervention Few subsequent infection peaks following school closure
Viner 2020	SR 9 published studies	No restriction	Schools or nurseries	School closures	Effectiveness of school social distancing measures	Study found a remarkable dearth of policy–relevant data on the implementation of school social distancing during coronavirus outbreaks.		
	7 non-peer reviewed studies					Data from the SARS outbreak in mainland China, Hong Kong, and Singapore suggest that school transmission played no substantial role in the outbreak, and that school closures and other activities such as school temperature monitoring did not contribute to control of infection transmission.		
	Modelling studies					One study concluded that the package of social distancing measures was effectiveness in reducing the final size and peak incidence of the outbreak while also		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Population	Setting (Location)	Intervention	Results			
	(**************************************		(Outcome	Narrative summary	Risk Estimate	Statistical significance
					(No. studies)		(95% CI)	Heterogeneity
						delaying the peak. Another modelling		
						study (not peer reviewed) concluded		
						school closure is insufficient to mitigate		
						the COVID–19 pandemic in isolation		

Abbreviations: CDC: Centre for Disease Control and Prevention; CI, confidence interval; COVID-19. Coronavirus Disease 2019; ILI, influenza-like illness; MA, meta-analysis; PHU, public health unit; R2001: Richardson 2001; RB: Red Book; RCT, randomised controlled trial; RG: Quick reference guide; RR, relative risk; SARS; severe acute respiratory syndrome; SD, standard deviation; SR, systematic review; WHO: World Health Organisation; VOC, variants of concern

Adverse events (including safety) related to the intervention

There were no studies found for adverse events thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with influenza-like illness is unknown.

Absenteeism

There were no studies found for absenteeism thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with influenza-like illness is unknown.

Length of illness

There were no studies found for length of illness thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with influenza-like illness is unknown.

Behaviour or practice change

A summary of the evidence relating to transmission in influenza-like illness is presented in Table 8.

Table 8 Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Behaviour or practice change

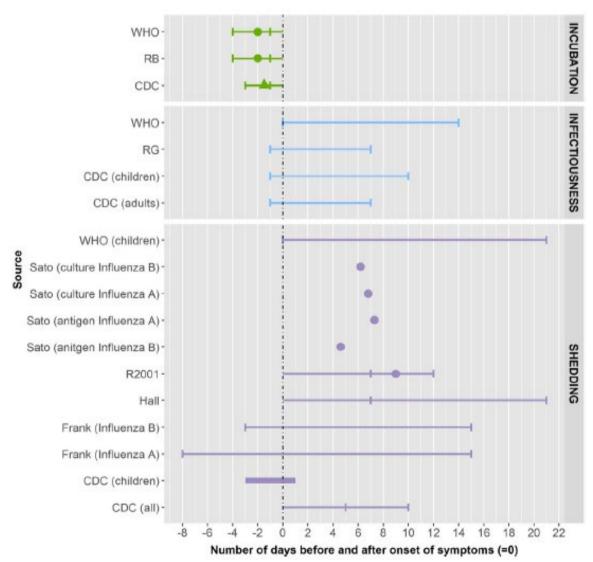
Study ID	Study design ^a	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Outcome	Results			
	(Sample size)	population	(Location)			Intervention Mean	No intervention Mean	Risk estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance p-value
Stebbins 2010	RCT (cluster)	School- aged children,	10 K-5 elementary schools	Hygiene-based non- pharmaceutical	Parents keep sick children home from school	3.26	3.23	NR	p = 0.8282
	N = 151	their parents, and the school	(USA)	interventions vs no intervention	III student reports to class	3.29	2.78	NR	p = 0.0007
		staff			Send an ill student to nurse	3.53	3.10	NR	p = 0.0018

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; RCT, randomised controlled trial

4.3.3.2 Figures

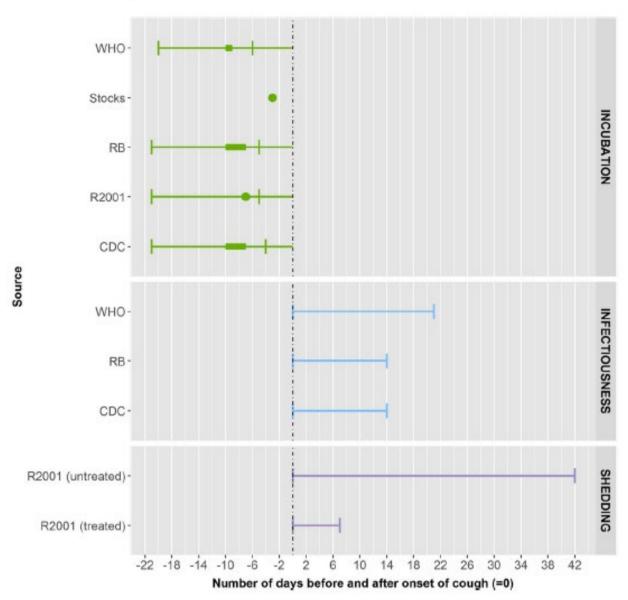
Outcome results related to protective measures for influenza-like illness is presented in Figure 6, Figure 7, and Figure 8.

Figure 6 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for influenza by source



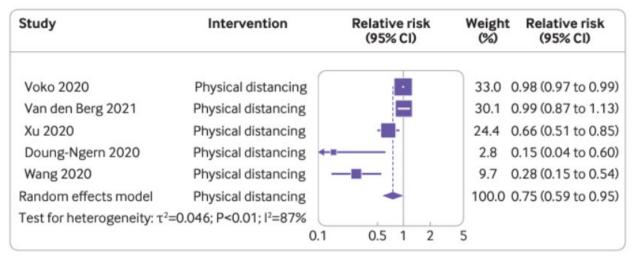
Source: Czumbel 2018; page 11 (Figure 9) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 7 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for pertussis by source



Source: Czumbel 2018; page 9 (Figure 7) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 8 Meta-analysis of evidence on association between physical distancing and incidence of covid-19 using unadjusted random effect model



Source: Talic 2021, page 7 (Figure 6) [See Appendix E1.3]

4.5 Rash symptomatic diseases

4.5.1 Description of studies

Six citations (9, 10, 29-32) corresponding to three studies (Chan 2017, Czumbel 2018, Getz 2016) and two National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2017b, CDNA SoNGs 2019) were identified in the literature. No additional studies were identified through other sources. There were 6 studies awaiting classification and one ongoing study. An overview of the PICO criteria of included studies is provided in Table 9.

Two included studies were systematic reviews of observational studies and clinical trials carried out in either China (Chan 2017) or a community setting across 28 countries (Czumbel 2018). One study included children aged 0-6 years in childcare facilities (Chan 2017) and the remaining systematic review focussed on children aged from 1 month to 18 years (Czumbel 2018). One study (Chan 2017) compared the impact and effectiveness of detection tools and public health preventive measures to interrupt transmission of hand, food, and mouth disease with 16 studies included in the meta-analysis. Czumbel 2018 investigated four key prognostic factors (1) the incubation period, (2), the period of infectiousness, (3) the duration of shedding and (4) the setting specific exclusion period across the most common transmittable childhood infectious diseases including measles, mumps, rubella, meningococcal infection and varicella. PubMed and Medline databases were searched for citations between 1980 and June 2015. CDC, WHO and the American Academy of Paediatricians Red Book were used to search for reference and relevant cited articles in October 2014.

The remaining study (Getz 2016) was carried out in schools where a measles outbreak has occurred. The modelling study compared the impact of stay-at-home regulations for children who are not vaccinated against measles against an inactive control on the number of measles cases. Getz 2016 used an individual-based SEIR model of measles outbreaks, under the assumption that the R_0 for measles is approximately 7, using two versions of the model – one with 85% vaccine coverage, and one with 95% vaccine coverage, at 400 student schools.

The National Guidelines were written on behalf of the Australian Government, Department of Health by the Communicable Diseases Network Australia (CDNA) in membership with the Australian Health Principal Protection Principal Committee (AHPPC). Each of the Guidelines are provided to assist public health units in responding to a notifiable invasive meningococcal disease (CDNA SoNGs 2017b) or measles (CDNA SoNGs 2019). They capture the knowledge of experienced professionals, build on past research efforts, and provide advice on best practice based upon the best available evidence at the time of completion.

Results for exclusions measures versus inactive control (historical cohort) for rash symptomatic disease are provided in the Summary of Findings table (see 4.5.3).

Table 9 Characteristics and quality of included studies: Rash symptomatic disease

Review ID Quality	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
CDNA SoNGs 2017b (32)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Invasive Meningococc al Disease	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Case management: Isolation and restriction
CDNA SoNGs 2019 (31)	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Measles	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness Case management: Isolation and restriction
Chan 2017 (29)	SR	Childcare facilities	China	Hand, foot and mouth	Public health preventive measures to interrupt transmission	Outbreak characteristics Methods for detection and diagnosis of EV71 Interventions applied Recommendations for dealing with future

Review ID Quality	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
						outbreaks
Czumbel 2018 (ECDC 2016) (9, 10)	SR	Households, children's homes, hospital, schools, nurseries, day care centres, community parks	Various	Various childhood disease (comprehens ive)	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness or duration of shedding Exclusion period
Getz 2016 (30)	Modelling study	Schools	USA	Measles	Stay at home regulations for children who are not vaccinated	Number of cases

Abbreviations: CDNA SoNGs, Communicable Diseases Network Australia Series of National Guidelines; NA, not applicable; SR, systematic review

4.5.2 Critical appraisal

One systematic review (Czumbel 2018) was assessed to be of moderate quality. Limitations arose due to the lack of a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias in individual studies included in the review. Additionally, the review did not conduct a meta-analysis so appropriate methods for statistical combination of results and publication bias could not be assessed. An additional systematic review was judged to be of low overall quality (Chan 2017). Further to the lack of risk of bias assessment and meta-analysis, the study also did not include components of the PICO in the research questions and inclusion criteria for the review or justify deviations from the protocol.

One additional primary study was judged to be of overall moderate risk of bias by the JBI manual (Getz 2016) as it was uncertain if participants were free of the outcome at the start of the study and there was no information on participants lost to follow up with no reasons or strategies to address incomplete follow up reported.

Details are provided in Appendix D3

4.5.3 Summary of findings

4.5.3.1 Exclusion period (vs no exclusion period)

Four citations corresponding to two studies (Czumbel 2018, Getz 2016) and one National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2017) reported new evidence on four rash symptomatic diseases. A summary of the new evidence is presented in Table 10. All outcomes from both included studies presenting new evidence were assessed to be of overall very low certainty of evidence (Czumbel 2018, Getz 2016).

All studies presenting new evidence on rash symptomatic diseases were judged to have no serious concerns of bias. As outcomes for each condition corresponded to a single study, inconsistency was not assessed and did not downgrade the certainty of evidence. Similarly, there was no serious indirectness for the available evidence of each disease. The evidence is generalisable to the Australian population and both studies were conducted in a school or community setting which did not downgrade the certainty of evidence. Both studies were assessed to have serious imprecision due to the low patient numbers wide range of results across both the systematic review (Czumbel 2018) and modelling study (Getz 2016). As such, the certainty of evidence was downgraded. Both included studies did not appear to have any publication bias and did not contribution to downgrading the certainty of evidence.

 Table 10
 Summary of new evidence: Rash symptomatic diseases

Disease	Previous Guidelines	Summary of New Evidence	Certainty of evidence	Source
Measles	Exclude for 4 days after the onset of the rash. All immunocompromised children should be excluded until 14 days after the appearance of the rash in the last case	Unvaccinated students should be sent home during outbreak (model provides evidence for the considerable efficacy of MD: 345 fewer cases with 85% coverage)	Very low ⊕⊖⊖	Getz 2016
Meningococcal infection	Exclude until appropriate antibiotic treatment has been completed. Contact a public health unit for specialist advice about antibiotics and/or vaccination for people who were in the same room as the case	Period of infectiousness: With effective antibiotic therapy meningococci usually disappear from the nasopharynx within 24 hours	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	CDNAs SoNGs 2017
Mumps	Exclude for 9 days or until swelling goes down	Incubation period: Range from 16 to 18 days Period of infectiousness: Range from 7 days before to between 11 to 14 days after parotitis onset Duration of shedding: Range from 2 to 6 days prior up to 4 days after onset of parotitis Exclude until 5 days after onset of parotid gland swelling	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (2 studies)
Rubella (German measles)	Exclude until the person has fully recovered or for at least 4 days after the onset of the rash	Incubation period: Range 13 to 24 days Duration of shedding: Range from 7 to 13 days before the onset of rash and persisting for between 6 and 14 days after onset of rash Exclude until 6 days after onset of a rash	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (2 studies)

.

Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases)

A summary of the evidence relating to transmission in rash symptomatic diseases is presented in Table 11.

Table 11 Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with symptomatic rash diseases

Study ID	Study type (no. of	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Disease	Results			
	trials)	population	(20020011)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
CDNA SoNGs 2017b	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Invasive Meningococcal Disease	Droplets and nasopharyngeal secretions are thought to be infectious from the onset of the acute illness until completion of 24 hours treatment with effective systemic antibiotics. 9 Hence, during this period both standard and droplet precautions should be practised for suspected, probable or confirmed cases, especially while undertaking airway management during resuscitation.	Usually from 1 to 7 days (rarely up to 10 days). Individuals who become asymptomatic carriers of meningococci are very unlikely to develop IMD	Until the organisms are no longer present in discharges from the nose and throat. With effective antibiotic therapy meningococci usually disappear from the nasopharynx within 24 hours.	
CDNA SoNGs 2019	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Measles	Susceptible contacts in early childhood education and care services and primary schools should be excluded until 14 days after the onset of the rash in the last case occurring at the facility or 18 days after the last contact with an infectious case to whom they were exposed outside the facility. However, they may return if vaccinated within 3 days (72 hours) of	The incubation period is variable, averaging about 10 days (range from 7 to 18 days, occasionally longer) to the onset of fever and about 14 days to the onset of the rash. This period can be longer if immunoglobulin is given early in the incubation period.	Cases are thought to be infectious from 24 hours prior to onset of prodromal symptoms until 4 days after the onset of rash. Where the prodrome is undefined, the onset of the infectious period	

Study ID	Study type	Patient	Setting	Disease	Results			
	(no. of trials)	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
					first exposure to an infectious case or if they receive NHIG within 6 days (144 hours) following exposure. Adults in normal work situations or tertiary education facilities who are susceptible contacts do not always need to be excluded from work, education or social settings, depending on an assessment of their likelihood of developing measles and the likely consequences of infecting others.		should be considered as 4 days before the onset of the rash.	
Czumbel 2018	SR 8 (1972 to 2013) (CDC, Red Book advice)	Children aged 1 month to 18 years. For exclusion measures: children attending a school or other	Schools, day care centres, households, institutions and hospitals	Measles		Range of between 9 and 20 days, with a median value of around 13 days. Approx. 2 days shorter if vaccinated	4 days before and 4 days after the onset of rash.	Ranged from between 2 days before to 6 days after the onset of rash
	SR 2 (1948, 1968) (CDC, Red Book advice)	childcare setting		Mumps	Information on exclusion was found until 5 days of onset of parotitis.	16–18 days	Range from between 7 days before to 11–14 days after parotitis onset.	Ranged from 2–6 days prior to the onset of symptoms and up to 4 days after the onset of parotitis

Study ID	Study type (no. of	Patient population	Setting	Disease	Results			
	trials)	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding
	SR 2 (1992, 1965) (CDC, Red Book advice)			Rubella	Data sources suggest an exclusion period of 5–6 days after onset of rash	Ranged between 13 and 24 days	NR	13 days before the onset of rash and persisted for up to 6 days after onset 7 days before up to 14 days after onset of rash
	SR 6 (1929 to 2006)			Varicella	Two studies reporting on exclusion were conducted in school outbreaks where children were excluded from school for 7 days after the onset of symptoms or until all lesions were crusted. The exclusion seemed not to have been effective since most transmission already occurred after exposure to prodromal cases.	Between 10 and 21 days with a mean/median of around 14–16 days depending on the contacts	Up to 5 days after the onset of symptoms	NR
	SR 0 studies (CDC)			Meningococcal Disease	The literature revealed that the exclusion should start as soon as the disease is suspected and for at least 48 h from the start of treatment	Between 1 and 10 days, most often between 1 and 4 days.	1–2 days after the start of treatment	1–2 days after the start of treatment and in untreated patients the median duration of shedding was 9 months

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials)	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Comparison	Results				
					Outcome	Number of cases (n/N) (Attack rate, %)	Facility closure duration	Isolation of HFMD cases until symptoms resolved	Other measures
Chan 2017	SR/MA of case_series studies (1 study)	Children aged 0-6 years in childcare facilities	facilities	Impact and effectiveness of detection tools and public health preventive measures to interrupt transmission of hand, food, and mouth disease	Environmental disinfection and isolation measures	6/157 (3.82)	6 days		
	(2 studies)				Personal hygiene, environmental disinfection, and isolation measure	54/620 (8.88)	2 weeks	Yes	
						16/382 (4.19)	No	Yes (14 days after symptoms relieved)	Body checks (AM)
	(6 studies)				All measures except hand hygiene (i.e. facility closure, environmental disinfection, isolation, morning body check)	372/16780 (2.22)	Full, partial and no closure	Yes	Body checks (AM/PM) and active case searching
						13/685 (14.31)	10 days	Yes	Active case searching
						26/689 (3.77)	2 Weeks	Yes	Body checks (AM/PM) and active case searching
						40/608 (8.88)	2 Weeks	Yes (for symptomatic and asymptomatic children)	Yes (test asymptomatic cases and recommend isolation)
						19/369 (5.15)	2 Weeks	Yes (1 week after symptoms resolved)	Body checks (AM/PM)
	(8 studies)				All measures: facility closure, environmental disinfection, hygiene, isolation, morning body check	91/830 (10.95%0	2 weeks	Yes (1 week after symptoms resolved)	Body checks (AM), good ventilation and forbid class sleeping in same room at same time
						15/167 (8.82)	30 days	Yes (2 weeks after symptoms resolved)	Body checks (AM)

Study ID	Study type (no. of	Patient population	Setting	Comparison	Results				
	trials)	population	(Location)		Outcome	Number of cases (n/N) (Attack rate, %)	Facility closure duration	Isolation of HFMD cases until symptoms resolved	Other measures
						34/889 (3.82)	15 days	Yes	Body checks (AM), good ventilation
						26/390 (6.67)	Yes (days not stated)	Yes	Body checks (AM/PM)
						16/102 (15.69)	2 weeks	Yes	
						23/750 (3.10)	2 weeks	Yes (for symptomatic and asymptomatic children)	Body checks (AM)
						30/213 (14.10)	2 weeks	Yes	Body checks (AM/PM)
						31/110 (28.18)	No	Yes	Body checks (AM), stop admission and active case searching
Getz 2016	Modelling	School children	Schools	Stay at home	Outcome	Intervention:	Comparator:	Risk estimate (95%	
	study	(aged 5-18)	where a measles	regulations for children who		Send home	No action	CI)	significance
			outbreak has	are not		Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD		p-value
		400 student school with 85% vaccination coverage	occurred (California, USA)	vaccinated vs. inactive control	Number of cases	2.4 ± 305	348 ± 403	MD -345.60 [- 415.64, -275.56] ^	p < 0.00001 ^
		400 student school with 95% vaccination coverage				1.6 ± 1.5	42 ± 50	MD -40.40 [-47.33, -33.47] ^	p < 0.00001 ^

Abbreviations: CDC: Centre for Disease Control and Prevention; CI, confidence interval; IMD, invasive meningococcal disease; R2001: Richardson 2001; RB: Red Book; RCT, randomised controlled trial; RG: Quick reference guide; RR, relative risk; SD, standard deviation; WHO: World Health Organisation

Adverse events (including safety) related to the intervention

There were no studies found for adverse events thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with rash symptomatic diseases is unknown.

Absenteeism

There were no studies found for absenteeism thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with rash symptomatic diseases is unknown.

Length of illness

There were no studies found for length of illness thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with rash symptomatic diseases is unknown

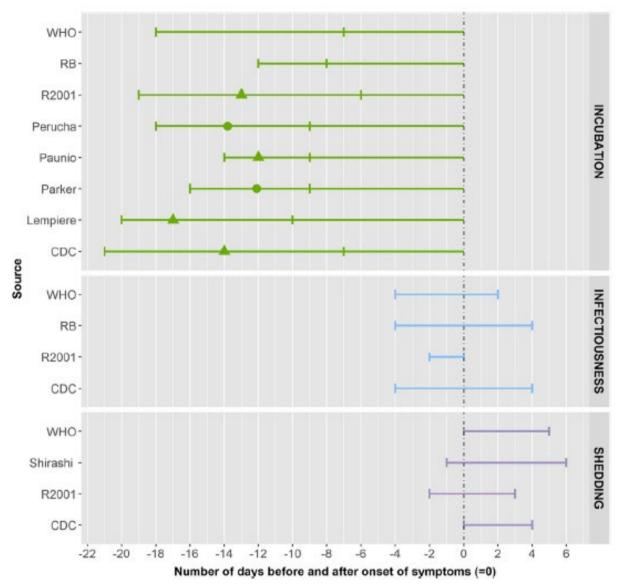
Behaviour or practice change

There were no studies found for behaviour or practice change thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with rash symptomatic diseases is unknown

4.5.3.2 Figures

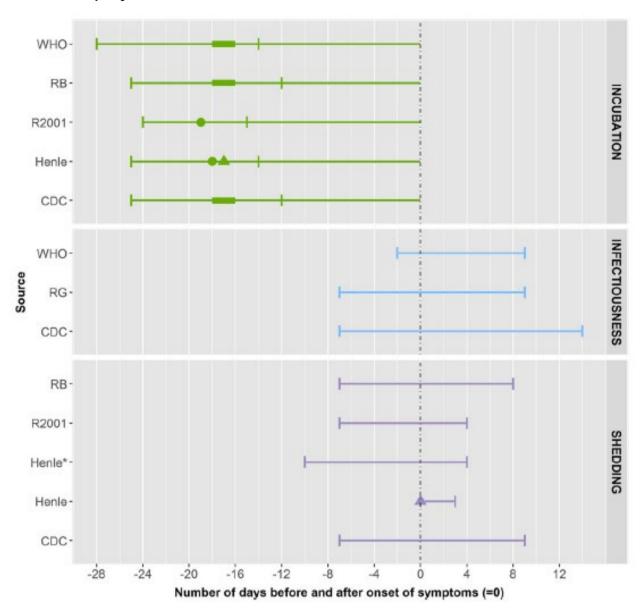
Outcome results related to protective measures for rash symptomatic diseases are presented in Figure 9 to 14.

Figure 9 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for measles by source



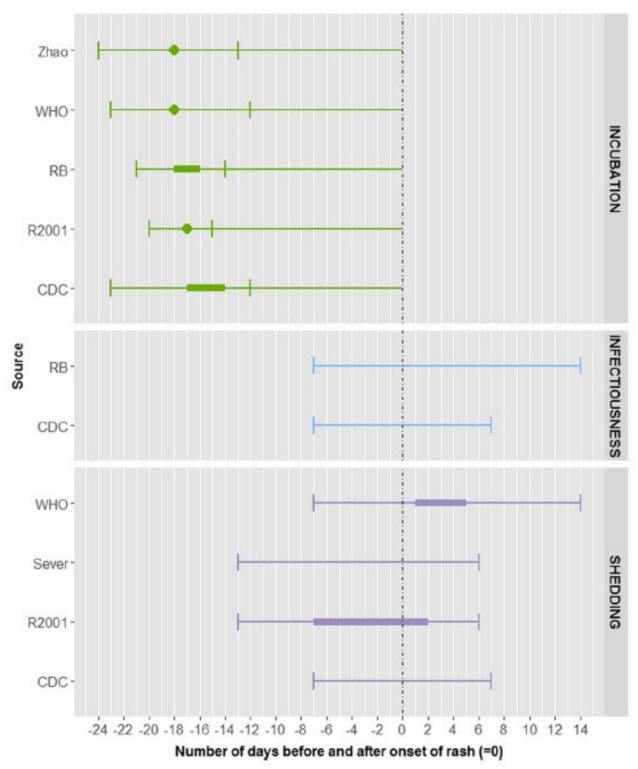
Source: Czumbel 2018, page 4 (Figure 2) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 10 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for mumps by source



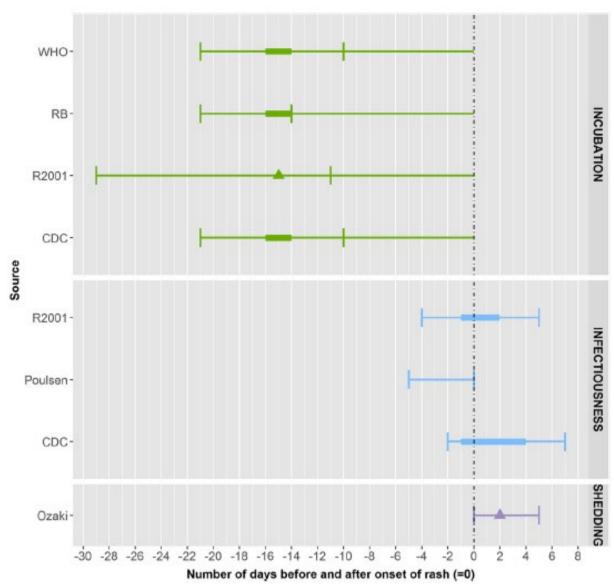
Source: Czumbel 2018, page 5 (Figure 3) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 11 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for rubella by source



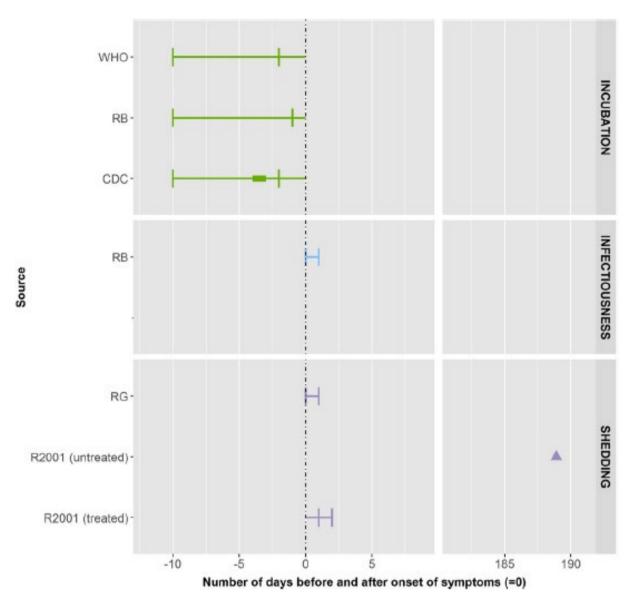
Source: Czumbel 2018, page 6 (Figure 4) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 12 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for varicella by source



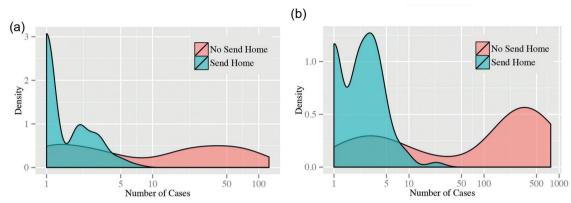
Source: Czumbel 2018, page 7 (Figure 5) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 13 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for meningitis by source



Source: Czumbel 2018, page 8 (Figure 6) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 14 Probability density plots of log number of cases from 100 runs of the model for each of the with and without implementation of the 'send unvaccinated students home' policy cases:
(a) low vaccination rate community (85%); (b) high vaccination rate community (95%)



Source: Getz 2016, page 391 (Figure 4) [See Appendix E1.4]

4.7 Other infectious diseases

4.7.1 Description of studies

Five citations (9, 10, 33-35) corresponding to three studies (Czumbel 2018, Högberg 2004, McNeil 2021) and one National Guidelines (CDNA SoNGs 2018) were identified in the literature. No additional studies were identified through other sources. There were 25 studies awaiting classification and no ongoing studies. An overview of the PICO criteria of included studies is provided in Table 12

One systematic review of observational studies and clinical trials (Czumbel 2018) was carried out in a community setting across 28 countries (United States, United Kingdom, Finland, Spain, Japan, China, Guinea–Bissau, Sweden, Republic of Guatemala, Australia, the Netherlands, Peru, Chile, Italy, Germany, India, Republic of the Union of Myanmar, Denmark, People's Republic of Bangladesh, Thailand, Norway, Taiwan, Canada, France, Malaysia, Trinidad, Kenya, Hong Kong) and focussed on children aged from 1 month to 18 years. The systematic review investigated four key prognostic factors (1) the incubation period, (2), the period of infectiousness, (3) the duration of shedding and (4) the setting specific exclusion period across the most common transmittable childhood infectious diseases including Hepatitis A, meningococcal infection, roseola, human parvovirus B19, impetigo, glandular fever, streptococcal sore throat. PubMed and Medline databases were searched for citations between 1980 and June 2015. CDC, WHO and the American Academy of Paediatricians Red Book were used to search for reference and relevant cited articles in October 2014.

The remaining studies were retrospective cohort trials carried out in either Sweden (Högberg 2004) or the United States (McNeil 2021). One study included children from 14-day care centres across two regions in Sweden (Högberg 2004) and the remaining study was conducted in a community setting including children under the age of 18 years (McNeil 2021). Högberg 2004 compared the exclusion of penicillin-non-susceptible Streptococcus pneumoniae (PNSP) carriers against no intervention and McNeil 2021 investigated the indirect impact of Coronavirus prevention strategies on invasive Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus pneumoniae (pneumococcus) and Group A Streptococcus against a historical cohort.

The National Guidelines was written on behalf of the Australian Government, Department of Health and Ageing by the Communicable Diseases Network Australia (CDNA). The Guidelines are provided to assist public health units in responding to a notifiable outbreak of Hepatitis A. They capture the knowledge of experienced professionals, build on past research efforts, and provide advice on best practice based upon the best available evidence at the time of completion.

Results for exclusions measures versus inactive control (historical cohort) for other infectious diseases are provided in the Summary of Findings table (see 4.7.3).

Table 12 Characteristics and quality of included studies: Other infectious diseases

Review ID Quality	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
CDNA SoNGs 2018 (35)	National Guidelines	NA	Australia	Hepatitis A	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness
						Case management: Isolation and restriction
Czumbel 2018 (ECDC 2016) (9, 10)	SR	Households, children's homes, hospital, schools, nurseries, day care centres, community	Various	Various childhood disease (comprehensive)	NA	Incubation period Period of infectiousness or duration of shedding Exclusion period

Review ID Quality	Study design	Setting	Location	Condition	Intervention/ Comparator	Outcomes
		parks				
Högberg 2004 (33)	Cohort study	Day care centres	Sweden	Penicillin-non- susceptible Streptococcus pneumoniae (PNSP)	Exclusion of PNSP carriers	Prevalence of PNSP
McNeil 2021 (34)	Retrospect ive cohort	Community - hospital data	Houston, Texas, USA	Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus pneumonia, Streptococcus pyogenes (group A Streptococcus)	Rates of disease in 2017, 2018, 2019 and 2020 (2020 during COVID)	Incidence per 10 000 each year

Abbreviations: CDNA SoNGs, Communicable Diseases Network Australia Series of National Guidelines; COVID-19, coronavirus 2019; NA, not applicable: SR. systematic review

4.7.2 Critical appraisal

One systematic review (Czumbel 2018) was assessed to be of moderate quality. Limitations arose due to the lack of a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias in individual studies included in the review. Additionally, the review did not conduct a meta-analysis so appropriate methods for statistical combination of results and publication bias could not be assessed.

Two additional studies were judged to be of overall moderate risk of bias by the JBI manual (Högberg 2004, McNeil 2021). Both studies did not provide information relating to strategies used to deal with confounding factors and it was uncertain if participants were lost to follow up and there were any strategies used to address incomplete follow up data.

Details are provided in Appendix D4.

4.7.3 Summary of findings

4.7.3.1 Exclusion period (vs no exclusion period)

Two citations corresponding to one study (Czumbel 2018) reported new evidence on two other infectious diseases. A summary of the new evidence is presented in Table 13. All outcomes from the included study presenting new evidence were assessed to be of overall very low certainty of evidence.

Results for outcomes across the review presenting new evidence was judged to have no serious concerns of bias. As outcomes from each condition corresponded to a single study, inconsistency was not assessed and did not downgrade the certainty of evidence. Similarly, there was no serious indirectness for the available evidence of each disease. The evidence is generalisable to the Australian population. All studies were conducted in a community setting which did not downgrade the certainty of evidence. Outcomes from both diseases were assessed to have serious imprecision due low patient numbers and wide range of results across the included studies in the systematic review (Czumbel 2018). As such, the certainty of evidence was downgraded. The included study did not appear to have any publication bias and did not contribution to downgrading the certainty of evidence.

Table 13 Summary of new evidence: Other infectious diseases

Disease	Previous Guidelines	Summary of New Evidence	Certainty of evidence	Source
Impetigo (Streptococcal)	Exclude until appropriate antibiotic treatment has started	Exclusion until 24 hours after treatment has been initiated	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (0 studies)
Scarlet fever	Exclude until the person has received antibiotic treatment for at least 24 hours and feels well	Minimum exclusion of cases from school was 24 hours, but not effective. Excluded from nursery for 5 days after the start of treatment with penicillin.	Very low ⊕⊖⊖⊖	Czumbel 2018 (2 studies)

Transmission related outcomes (e.g. number of cases)

A summary of the evidence relating to transmission in other infectious diseases is presented in Table 14

Table 14 Results for exclusion period vs no exclusion period: Transmission related outcomes in people with other infectious diseases

Study ID	Study type (no. of	Patient population	Setting	Disease	Results					
	trials)	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding		
CDNA SoNGs 2018	National Guidelines	Community	Australia	Hepatitis A	While in the infectious period which can be defined as: • from two weeks before the onset of the prodrome to at least seven days after the onset of jaundice; OR • from two weeks before the onset of the prodrome to 2 weeks after the onset of symptoms if there is no jaundice; OR • for asymptomatic cases, estimated using the timing of contact with the source	The incubation period averages 28 to 30 days, with a range of 15 to 50 days.	Two weeks before the onset of prodromal symptoms to either one week after the onset of jaundice OR two weeks after the onset of prodromal symptoms			
Czumbel 2018	SR 3 (1967, 1952, 1986) (CDC, Red Book advice)	Children aged 1 month to 18 years. For exclusion measures: children attending a school or	Schools, day care centres, households, institutions and hospitals	Hepatitis A	One study suggested exclusion from school until severe symptoms persist combined with application of hygienic measure was found useful. One week of exclusion after onset of jaundice.	Between 30 and 125 days (median of 37 days)				
	SR 2 (1939, 1998 (CDC, Red Book advice)	other childcare setting		Roseola	RG: No need, unless the child is unable to participate, or the child meets other exclusion criteria such as fever with behavioural change	Serial interval 5 to 15 days (average, 10 days)	Up to 60–90 days (intermittent)			
	SR	-		Human	RG: No need, unless the child has an					

Study ID	Study type (no. of	Patient population	Setting	Disease	Results					
	trials)	population	(Location)		Exclusion measures (case attack rate, reduction in peak)	Incubation period	Period of infectiousness	Duration of shedding		
	(CDC, Red Book advice)			parvovirus B19	underlying blood disorder, such as sickle cell disease, or a compromised immune system, unable to participate; the child meets other exclusion criteria such as fever with behavioural change CDC: The greatest risk of transmitting the virus occurs before symptoms of El develop; therefore, transmission cannot be prevented by identifying and excluding persons with El. A policy to routinely exclude members of highrisk groups is not recommended.					
	SR 1 (1985)	_		Glandular fever				Range up to ≥29 weeks after onset		
	SR			Streptococcal	The authors of the outbreak	Range between 3	Duration of	Between 2 to 7		
	2 studies (1933, 1988) (CDC, Red Book advice)			sore throat	investigation study suggest that due to the long duration of shedding, exclusion from school for 3 weeks will not be effective. The other study suggested keep infected children at school until the first sign of catarrh or cough, to protect younger children RB: Until 5 days of appropriate antimicrobial therapy course completed CDC: Until 5 days of a full course of antimicrobial treatment; Untreated: 21 days from onset of cough R2001: Treated: 5 days from starting antibiotics; Untreated: at least 3 weeks"	to 21 days, usually between 7 to 10 days - within the same household: 3 days, most probably 7 days; unknown upper limit	shedding up to 4 to 7 weeks after illness onset Most contagious in the first two weeks after cough onset	weeks after illness onset in those who were untreated and less than 7 days after onset of symptoms in those who were treated		

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials) included	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Disease	Outcome	Baseline prevalence (%) n/N	Follow up cumulative incidence (%) n/N	No follow up cultures	Follow up time (weeks)														
Högberg 2004	Prospective/ retrospectiv	Children from 14 daycare	Day care centres	Exclusion of penicillin-non-	Prevalence across each day care centre																		
	e cohort study	centres who had extensive	(Skane and Goteborg City,	susceptible Streptococcus	1	25% (3/12)	0(0/9)	1	1														
		daily contact	Sweden)	pneumoniae (PNSP) carriers	2	45% (5/21)	9 (0/16)	1	1														
				from day care	3	21% (3/14)	0 (0/11)	1	1														
				centres vs. no intervention	4	29% (2/7)	0 (0.5)	1	1														
					5	13% (1/8)	14% (1/7)	2	2														
					6	13% (3/24)	5% (1/21)	2	2														
						7	11% (2/18)	13% (2/16)	2	2													
						8	6% (1/17)	0 (0/16)	1	1													
															9	14% (2/14)	0 (0/12)	1	3				
					10	20% (3/15)	0 (0/12)	1	2														
					11	7% (1/15)	0 (0/14)	1	1														
					12	8% (1/12)	27% (3/11)	3	9														
																				13	54% (7/12)	33% (2/5)	2
					14	8% (2/24)	9% (2/22)	3	10														
						TOTAL Incidence of	Study Area A: 2.9	9% (4//139)															
					PNSP	Study Area B: 18	3.4% (7/38)																
					Proportion new carriers estimated to be attributed to the lack of intervention	NR	84%	95% CI, 49 - 95															

Study ID	Study type (no. of trials) included	Patient population	Setting (Location)	Disease	Outcome	Intervention n/N (%) Mean ± SD	Comparator n/N (%) Mean ± SD	Risk estimate (95% CI)	Statistical significance p-value
McNeil 2021	Prospective cohort study	Paediatric admissions (<18 years)	dmissions (Houston, 18 years) Texas)	n, Coronavirus 2 ac prevention S. strategies on S. invasive st Staphylococcus (IG aureus, p.	Total hospital admissions for S. aureus (I-CO- SA), Group A streptococcus (IGAS), and pneumococcal disease (IPD)	2020 = 17348 admissions	2017 = 20840 admissions 2018 = 20760 admissions 2019 = 22304 admissions	NR	NR
				pneumoniae (pneumococcus) and Group A Streptococcus vs. historical cohort	Pneumococcal disease (IPD) incidence	Declined to 13.83/10000 admissions	Incidence stable from 2017 to 2019 (range from 19.26 to 23.39 cases/10000 admissions)	RR 0.51 (95% CI 0.32, 0.81)	Favours intervention p = 0.02
				(I-CO-SA) Streptococcus pyogenes [Group A Streptococcus (GAS)] Specific	community onset S. aureus	Stable from 2018 to 2020 57.6/10000 admissions	Increased from 2017 to 2018 (54.7/10000 vs 65.03/10,000)	RR 0.9 (95% CI: 0.78, 1.32)	No significant difference in I–CO–SA between 2019 – 2020 p = 0.47
					pyogenes [Group A Streptococcus	Declined in 2020 25.36/10000 admissions	Increased incidence 2019 – 2019 30.71/10000 to 39.01/10000 admissions	RR = 0.65 (95% CI: 0.45–93)	Favours intervention p = 0.02
					Specific diagnosis of IPD	Bacteraemia: 5.19/10000 in 2020	Bacteraemia: 11.21/10000 in 2019	Bacteraemia RR 0.46 (95% CI 0.21, 0.99)	Bacteraemia: p = 0.02
						Meningitis: 2.88/10000 in 2020	Meningitis: 7.62/10000 in 2019	Meningitis RR 0.37 (95% CI 0.12, 0.98)	Meningitis: $p = 0.03$
						Pneumonia: 2.88/10000 in 2020	Pneumonia: 6.72/10000 in 2019	Pneumonia: RR 0.43 (95% CI 0.15, 1.17)	Pneumonia: p = 0.06

Abbreviations: CDC: Centre for Disease Control and Prevention; CI, confidence interval; PHU, public health unit; R2001: Richardson 2001; RB: Red Book; RCT, randomised controlled trial; RG: Quick reference guide; RR, relative risk; SD, standard deviation; WHO: World Health Organisation	

Adverse events (including safety) related to the intervention

There were no studies found for adverse events thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with other infectious diseases is unknown.

Absenteeism

There were no studies found for absenteeism thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with other infectious diseases is unknown.

Length of illness

There were no studies found for the length of illness thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with other infectious diseases is unknown.

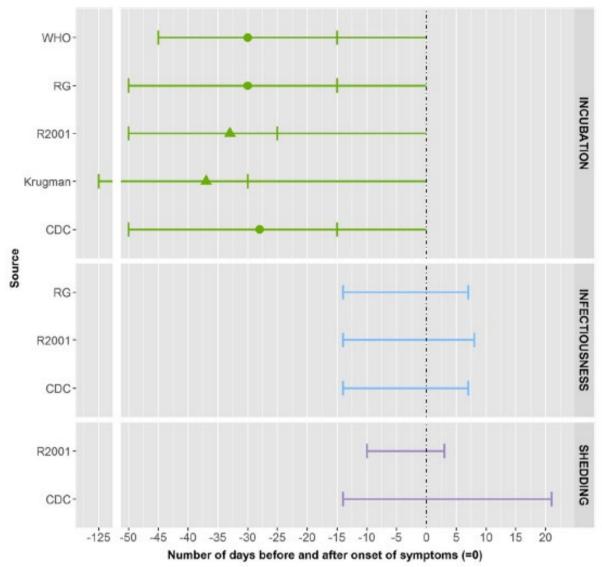
Behaviour or practice change

There were no studies found for behaviour or practice change thus the effect of exclusion measures compared with control in children or adults with other infectious diseases is unknown.

4.7.3.2 Figures

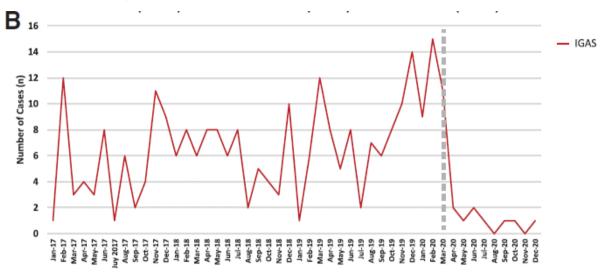
Outcome results related to protective measures for rash symptomatic diseases are presented in Figures 15 to 18.

Figure 15 Summary measures for the incubation period, infectiousness and shedding period for hepatitis A by source



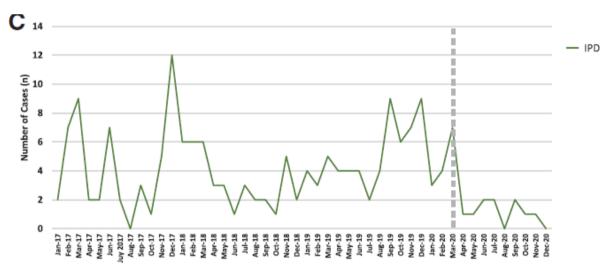
Source: Czumbel 2018, page 10 (Figure 8) [See Appendix E1.1]

Figure 16 Trend in number of cases of IGAS. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates



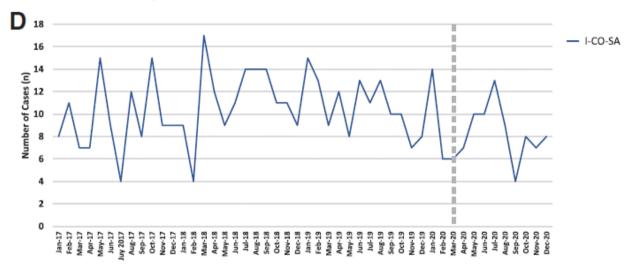
Source: McNeil 2021, page e315 (Figure 1) [See Appendix E1.5]

Figure 17 Trend in number of cases of IPD. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates



Source: McNeil 2021, page e315 (Figure 1) [See Appendix E1.5]

Figure 18 Trend in number of cases of I-CO-SA. The dashed vertical line corresponds to the initiation of infection mitigation mandates



Source: McNeil 2021, page e315 (Figure 1) [See Appendix E1.5]

5 Discussion

5.1 Summary of main results

We conducted a systematic review of Systematic reviews and primary studies to evaluate the effectiveness of exclusion measures for four overarching disease categories pertaining to the 43 infectious diseases listed in the 2013 Staying Healthy – preventing infectious disease in early childhood education and care services resource. We identified 20 studies (14 Systematic reviews and six Primary studies) and six National Guidelines with evidence available for meta-analysis for exclusions measures compared to no intervention or an alternative intervention. Results for studies with available evidence are presented in **Appendix E** and narratively described in the results section. Where applicable, studies with new evidence were assessed with the Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development, and Evaluations (GRADE) framework. GRADE combines information to assess overall how certain systematic review authors can be that the estimates of the effect (reported across a study/s for each critical or important outcome) are correct.

Certainty of evidence is interpreted as follows:

Certainty	Definition
High certainty	The authors have a lot of confidence that the true effect is similar to the estimated effect.
Moderate certainty	The true effect is probably close to the estimated effect.
Low certainty	The true effect might be markedly different from the estimated effect.
Very low certainty	The true effect is

5.1.1 Gastrointestinal diseases

The new evidence provides very low certainty of the effect of exclusion measures versus inactive control (no intervention) on gastrointestinal diseases. The evidence from two studies (one SR, one retrospective cohort) suggests the implementation of exclusion measures results in no difference to the prevalence of giardia but a reduction in the prevalence of viral gastroenteritis.

For giardiasis, the current guidelines recommend exclusion of the case until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours with no exclusion required for contacts. New evidence from Czumbel 2018 suggests that no control strategy results in a significantly lower prevalence of giardia.

For viral gastroenteritis, the current guidelines recommend exclusion of the case until there has not been a loose bowel motion for 24 hours with no exclusion required for contacts. The new evidence shows the prevention and control of the COVID-19 pandemic (including isolation) can also limit the infection and transmission of rotavirus and adenovirus.

5.1.2 Influenza-like illnesses

The new evidence provides moderate to low certainty of the effect of exclusion measures on influenza-like illnesses. The evidence from three systematic reviews (Burns 2021, Czumbel 2018, Talic 2021) and three National Guidelines (Pertussis 2015, Influenza 2017, COVID-19 2022) suggests the implementation of exclusions measures is effective at preventing the prevalence and transmission of influenza, pertussis and COVID-19.

For influenza, the previous guidelines recommend exclusion of the case until the person is well with no exclusion required for contacts. The new evidence suggests isolation is maintained for at least two days following the last day of fever (Burns 2021) where the period of infectiousness is one day before to 10 days following symptom onset (Czumbel 2018).

For pertussis, previous guidelines indicate exclusion until five days after starting appropriate antibiotic treatment, or for 21 days from the onset of coughing with advice to contact a public health unit for specialist advice about excluding non-vaccinated contacts. New evidence recommends the same five-day exclusion after starting antibiotic treatment but suggest 14 days if the case does not take antibiotics (CDNA SoNGs 2015). This is validated by the period of infectiousness reported as most contagious in the first two weeks after cough onset (Czumbel 2018).

There was no prior advice in the Staying Healthy guidelines provided for COVID-19 measures. New evidence from one systematic review (Talic 2021) reported a favourable effect for physical distancing in reducing the incidence of COVID-19 and SARS-CoV-2 (RR: 0.75 [95% CI 0.59, 0.95] and RR: 0.88, [95% CI 0.86, 0.89] respectively). Similarly, school closures proved effective in reducing the incidence of COVID-19 (95% CI -49, -71) but this was dependent on early implementation. Isolation or stay at home measures were also an effective measure in reducing the transmission of SARS-CoV-2, but the included studies used results for mobility to assess stay at home or isolation and therefore could have been limited by potential flaws in publicly available phone data. The CDNA SoNGs 2022 recommends a quarantine period of seven days for reducing transmission with the period of infectiousness reported as 10 days after the symptom onset yet can vary based on individual factors.

5.1.3 Rash symptomatic diseases

The new evidence provides low certainty of the effect of exclusion measures on rash symptomatic diseases. The evidence from two systematic review or modelling studies (Czumbel 2018, Getz 2016) and one National Guidelines (Meningococcal 2017) suggests the implementation of the current exclusion measures may not be effective at reducing the prevalence of meningococcal infections or mumps but exclusion of infectious persons with measles or rubella is essential at decreasing transmission of the disease.

For measles, current guidelines recommend exclusion of the case for four days after onset of the rash with guidance that non-immunised contacts should contact a public health unit for specialist advice. New evidence from a 2016 modelling study comparing sending student home vs. no action suggests unvaccinated students should be sent home during a measles outbreak (MD -345.60 [-415.64, -275.56], p < 0.00001).

Current guidelines for meningococcal infection recommend exclusion until appropriate antibiotic treatment has been completed with advice to contact a public health unit about antibiotics and/or vaccination for people who were in the same room as the case. New evidence from the CDNA SoNGs 2017 reports that with effective antibiotic therapy, meningococci usually disappear from the nasopharynx within 24 hours.

For mumps, the 2013 guidelines suggest exclusion of the case for nine days or until swelling subsides. Evidence from one systematic review (Czumbel 2018) reports exclusions for five days after the onset of parotid gland swelling is effective with the duration of shedding stated as zero to three days after symptom onset.

The previous guidelines suggest exclusion of a person infected with rubella until they have fully recovered or for at least four days after the onset of the rash. New evidence recommends exclusion for six days after rash onset with the duration of shedding reported as the range from six to 14 days post onset of rash (Czumbel 2018).

5.1.4 Other infectious diseases

The new evidence provides low certainty of the effect of exclusion measures on other infectious diseases. The evidence from one systematic review (Czumbel 2018) suggests the implementation of the current exclusion measures are effective for streptococcal but may not be required for persons infected with scarlet fever.

For impetigo (streptococcal), the current guidelines recommend exclusion until appropriate antibiotic treatment has started. New evidence suggests an additional 24 hours after treatment has been initiated is required for reducing the transmission of streptococcal (Czumbel 2018).

The 2013 guidelines for scarlet fever recommend exclusion until the person has received antibiotic treatment for at least 24 hours and feels well. New evidence from Czumbel 2018 reported the minimum exclusion of cases from school of 24 hours was not effective. In addition, cases from a nursery suggest exclusion for five days after the start of treatment with penicillin.

5.2 Overall completeness and applicability of evidence

This review aimed to identify the available evidence on the effectiveness of exclusion measures in a childcare setting. Most studies identified were systematic reviews or modelling studies. Studies that assessed exclusion measures versus an inactive control (no intervention) or an alternate intervention were included in the synthesis.

There were 6 studies that met the eligibility criteria for the review but were not included in the evidence evaluation due to duplication of data or lack of usable data for the evidence synthesis. The studies are listed in an inventory titled *Details of studies from search results excluded* (Appendix C1, Table C.1).

Studies published in a language other than English were not translated and were not included in the synthesis but were listed in an inventory for completeness (Appendix C2.1). Databases in languages other than English were not searched. There was one publication identified in a language other than English.

The available evidence was from a range of countries including Australia, Canada, China, France, India, Iran, Israel, Japan, Korea, Singapore, Spain, Thailand, the Netherlands, United Kingdom and the United States. All studies examined exclusions measures encompassing isolation, quarantine, school closures, stay at home orders and cohorting. Participants were generally pre-school or primary school age (3-12 years) children, but many studies included the wider community with no limits on population. In general, the included studies provided a clear description of the intervention, outcomes and disease focussed on in the study.

Studies included in this review are those published up until September 2022. Given the amount of evidence for exclusion measures that remained unpublished or was not yet evaluated at the time of the search (93 studies awaiting classification and five studies listed as ongoing) it is unknown whether these studies would meet the eligibility criteria for this review and impact the overall results.

5.3 Certainty of the evidence

A large proportion of the studies included in this review had concerns of bias relating to the inability of studies to blind participants, and outcome assessors being aware of the intervention received. This was considered reasonable, given the intervention, and generally did not raise serious concerns when assessing the certainty of the evidence. For most studies we were unable to obtain and therefore assess published protocols or statistical analysis plans, and as per the protocol, did not attempt to contact study authors to obtain this information.

A reported follow up time and its suitability for outcome assessment was not clearly states for most primary studies eligible for included in the analysis. Additionally, lack of information on any reasons loss to follow up and strategies to deal with incomplete data further reduced the overall certainty of evidence. Additional details are outlined in Appendix G.

The certainty of evidence across outcomes was generally downgraded for issues with risk of bias (related to quality of the study) and imprecision (related to wide range of results, lack of adjustment for confounding factors).

5.4 Potential biases in the review process

To ensure transparency in the review process we send the final protocol to the SHIC committee for approval before commencing the search. To capture most studies assessing the effectiveness of exclusion measures, we did not apply date, language or outcome restrictions in our search. In addition, we comprehensively searched multiple databases and did not limit by study design (SRs, RCTs, and cohort studies were included). We included detailed documentation of the inclusion criteria to avoid inconsistent application of study selection and used standardised procedures for data collection and critical appraisal. Where possible, we have applied a methodological approach consistent with the *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions* and other best practice methods.

While we have attempted to control for potential biases, some deviations from the protocol were necessary for pragmatic reasons. To ensure these deviations from protocol are clear, deviations and post-hoc decisions have been documented and explained in Appendix F.

Data collection was performed by one researcher who collected data using data extraction forms. A second reviewer checked for completeness and accuracy in data extraction.

We did not include studies published in languages other than English in the analysis, so it is possible that we may have missed studies that may (or may not) impact the overall conclusions of this review.

5.5 Agreements and disagreements with other studies or reviews

There are currently no published Cochrane reviews that are specific to exclusions measures for preventing infectious diseases in children. However, the existing SHIC guidelines, CDNA SoNGs (24-26, 31, 32, 35) and WHO infection prevention and control in primary care (37) provided information relating to the use of exclusion as a means of preventing infectious diseases in childcare settings. The results for most infectious diseases are in agreeance with the evidence reported in our review. Most of these guidance documents report that exclusions measures should be used as an effective intervention to achieve reduced prevalence and transmission of disease in children and adults in childcare settings with the length of exclusion dependant on the infectious period and duration of shedding of the virus.

In comparison to the 2013 Guidelines, there was new evidence on the use of exclusions measures for 11 included diseases (impetigo, giardiasis, viral gastroenteritis, measles, meningococcal infection, mumps, rubella, scarlet fever, pertussis, influenza and COVID-19) that may work to inform the upcoming version of the SHIC guidance document.

5.6 Limitations

5.6.1 At study and outcome level

The main limitations at the study and outcome level are the low number of systematic reviews and trials per comparison for all diseases except influenza, which reduce the precision of the overall effect and prevented any meta- analyses. An additional limitation is that it was not possible to statistically assess the effect of the intervention across all disease categories as majority of studies provided narrative summaries. The inability to assess publication bias using funnel plots also raised potential constraints to the review.

The absence of information about reporting risk of bias for the included studies in the systematic reviews contributed to lower quality of evidence assessments as did the fact than many primary studies failed to report follow up strategies and identify confounding factors. Without a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias for individual studies included in systematic reviews; the robustness of the data was comprised by authors excluding the level of certainty from the analysis, making it difficult to ascertain the quality of results from the systematic review. Where systematic reviews did not conduct a meta-analysis of the results, a judgement regarding the risk of bias of included studies and appropriateness of the method used to combine results was made. Based on guidance for systematic reviews without meta-analysis (36), and in the absence of discussions on the potential impact of risk of bias on the results of the included studies it was considered likely that the quality of the review was impaired.

5.6.2 At review level

This review is limited to the assessment of the evidence for the use of exclusion measures to prevent infectious disease transmission in childcare settings to inform the Staying Healthy Advisory Committee for the updated Staying Healthy in Childhood Guidelines. This review is not designed to assess the way diseases are transmitted, or the reasons people or institutions chose to practice the intervention.

The main comparator of interest was exclusion measures compared to inactive control (no intervention) or alternate intervention with outcomes assessed limited to transmission related outcomes, adverse events, absenteeism, length or illness or behaviour and practice change. Majority of studies assessed the impact of exclusion measures on one of the 43 included diseases in the 2013 SHIC Guidelines; however, an additional 3 studies (Czumbel 2018, McNeil 2021, Hoburg 2004) provided evidence for 8 diseases not in the 2013 Guidelines including invasive staphylococcal, Group A streptococcal, pneumococcal, penicillin resistant pneumococcal, MRSA, typhoid, E coli 0157, EPEC, EHEC and RSV.

Given the limited evidence base, many of the results were limited to one or two systematic reviews and primary studies, with the number of included studies in systematic reviews ranging from 16 to 112 publications. Three quarters of the evidence included in the synthesis was for influenza-like illnesses.

Given the low quality of evidence across all disease categories, it is challenging to conclude the effectiveness of exclusion measures for the infectious diseases included. An additional limitation of this review is that several studies were awaiting classification, ongoing, or not translated at the time of the search. This missingness of this data was considered unlikely to substantially change the overall conclusions of the review.

The breadth and diversity of diseases identified for inclusion in this review means that it is possible that some outcome domains and outcome measures have been misclassified or missed during the evidence synthesis process.

A final limitation is that the literature search was last conducted in September 2022, it is possible that given the identification of several studies awaiting classification and ongoing studies, there may be additional evidence that may (or may not) impact the overall conclusions of this review.

6 Authors' conclusions

6.1 Implications for practice

This report was commissioned by the Staying Healthy Advisory Committee as part of the Staying Healthy in Childhood Guidelines review, with findings intended to inform decisions relating to the upcoming version of the SHIC Guidelines. As such, specific recommendations are not provided.

There is an absence of high certainty evidence examining the effectiveness of exclusion measures compared with no intervention for the 43 infectious diseases listed in the 2013 Guidelines or outcomes that align with the reasons why people are typically excluded from childcare settings in Australia.

A significant proportion of the evidence base in this report assessed the effect of exclusion measures on influenza-like illnesses. Of the outcomes prioritised in the PICO (See Figure 1), there were two infectious diseases (influenza and COVID-19) where the evidence provides moderate certainty of the benefit. In contrast, the evidence provides low certainty of evidence that exclusion measures provide little to no benefit in two diseases (giardia, scarlet fever), as the review reports no effect on the transmissibility of the disease when children were excluded.

For remaining diseases, there were one or two studies eligible for inclusion per infectious disease per outcome. For the outcomes prioritised in the PICO, the evidence provides low certainty of benefit for all outcomes.

6.2 Implications for research

There is a need for more robust trials evaluating the effectiveness of exclusion measures compared with no intervention or inactive control. The available evidence could be enhanced by larger studies (more participants enrolled), improved reporting of the methods used, analysis of results from all participants (or better transparency of follow-up data), as well as measuring and reporting outcomes that are important for decision-making. Many of the studies focused on the effect of exclusion measures in symptomatic participants who were excluded for a short period (7 days or less). It is possible the benefits of excluding infectious individuals may be more apparent in people who continue to be excluded for more than 10 days. Information regarding the sustainability of the effect is also unknown, with few studies providing any follow-up data.

There were five studies with an inactive control and undertaken in the required population identified in our search that were listed as ongoing. Evidence reported in these studies are expected to contribute to future updates where studies are completed, and results published, noting that some may never be completed and/or published.

References

- 1. Moher D, Shamseer L, Clarke M, Ghersi D, Liberati A, Petticrew M, et al. Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. Syst Rev. 2015;4:1.
- 2. Higgins J, Lasserson T, Chandler J, Tovey D, Thomas J, Flemyng E, et al. Methodological Expectations of Cochrane Intervention Reviews. London: Cochrane; 2019. Available from: https://community.cochrane.org/mecir-manual.
- 3. Schünemann H, Brożek J, Guyatt G, Oxman A. GRADE Handbook. Handbook for grading the quality of evidence and the strength of recommendations using the GRADE approach [Internet]. 2013; (Updated October 2013). Available from: https://gdt.gradepro.org/app/handbook/handbook.html.
- 4. Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions version 6.0 (updated July 2019): Cochrane; 2019. Available from: www.training.cochrane.org/handbook.
- 5. Aromataris E, Munn Z, editors. JBI Manual for Evidence Synthesis. https://jbi-global-wiki.refined.site/space/MANUAL/4687404/About+this+Manual: Joanna Briggs Institute; 2020.
- 6. Tufanaru C, Munn Z, Aromataris E, Campbell J, Hopp L. Chapter 3: Systematic reviews of effectiveness. In: Aromataris E, Munn Z, editors. Joanna Briggs Institute Reviewer's Manual: The Joanna Briggs Institute; 2017.
- 7. Review Manager (RevMan) [Computer program]. Version 5.4. ed: The Cochrane Collaboration; 2020.
- 8. Li W, Zhu Y, Lou J, Chen J, Xie X, Mao J. Rotavirus and adenovirus infections in children during COVID-19 outbreak in Hangzhou, China. Transl Pediatr. 2021;10(9):2281-6.
- 9. Czumbel I, Quinten C, Lopalco P, Semenza JC. Management and control of communicable diseases in schools and other child care settings: Systematic review on the incubation period and period of infectiousness. BMC Infectious Diseases. 2018;18(1):199.
- 10. Tijhuis MJ, Cai R, Noordegraaf-Schouten MV, Czumbel I. Systematic literature review on the incubation period and period of infectiousness/shedding of child infectious diseases. European Journal of Epidemiology. 2015;30(8):810.
- 11. Chen T, Gu H, Leung RKK, Liu R, Chen Q, Wu Y, et al. Evidence-Based interventions of Norovirus outbreaks in China. BMC public health. 2016;16(1):1072.
- 12. (CDNA) CDNA. Guidelines for the public health management of gastroenteritis outbreaks due to norovirus or suspected viral agents in Australia In: Health Do, editor. Australia: CDNA; 2010.
- 13. Fong MW, Gao H, Wong JY, Xiao J, Shiu EYC, Ryu S, et al. Nonpharmaceutical Measures for Pandemic Influenza in Nonhealthcare Settings-Social Distancing Measures. Emerging infectious diseases. 2020;26(5):976-84.
- 14. Fumanelli L, Ajelli M, Merler S, Ferguson NM, Cauchemez S. Model-Based Comprehensive Analysis of School Closure Policies for Mitigating Influenza Epidemics and Pandemics. PLoS Computational Biology. 2016;12(1):e1004681.
- 15. Jackson C, Vynnycky E, Hawker J, Olowokure B, Mangtani P. School closures and influenza: Systematic review of epidemiological studies. BMJ Open. 2013;3(2):002149.
- 16. Jackson C, Mangtani P, Fine P, Vynnycky E. The effects of school holidays on transmission of varicella zoster virus, England and Wales, 1967-2008. PLoS ONE. 2014;9(6):e99762.
- 17. Murillo-Zamora E, Guzman-Esquivel J, Sanchez-Pina RA, Cedeno-Laurent G, Delgado-Enciso I, Mendoza-Cano O. Physical distancing reduced the incidence of influenza and supports a favorable impact on SARS-CoV-2 spread in Mexico. Journal of Infection in Developing Countries. 2020;14(9):953-6.
- 18. Rashid H, Ridda I, King C, Begun M, Tekin H, Wood JG, et al. Evidence compendium and advice on social distancing and other related measures for response to an influenza pandemic. Paediatric Respiratory Reviews. 2015;16(2):119-26.
- 19. Spielberger BD, Goerne T, Geweniger A, Henneke P, Elling R. Intra-Household and Close-Contact SARS-CoV-2 Transmission Among Children a Systematic Review. Frontiers in Pediatrics. 2021;9:613292.

- 20. Stebbins S, Stark JH, Vukotich Jr CJ. Compliance with a multilayered nonpharmaceutical intervention in an urban elementary school setting. Journal of public health management and practice: JPHMP. 2010;16(4):316-24.
- 21. Uchida M, Tsukahara T, Kaneko M, Washizuka S, Kawa S. Effect of short-term school closures on the H1N1 pandemic in Japan: A comparative case study. Infection. 2012;40(5):549-56.
- 22. Bin Nafisah S, Alamery AH, Al Nafesa A, Aleid B, Brazanji NA. School closure during novel influenza: A systematic review. Journal of Infection and Public Health. 2018;11(5):657-61.
- 23. Burns AAC, Gutfraind A. Effectiveness of isolation policies in schools: evidence from a mathematical model of influenza and COVID-19. PeerJ. 2021;9:e11211.
- 24. (CDNA) CDNA. Seasonal Influenza Infection: CDNA National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. 2017.
- 25. Australia CDN. Pertussis: CDNA National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. CDNA2015.
- 26. (CDNA) CDNA. Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19): CDNA National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. CDNA2022.
- 27. Talic S, Shah S, Wild H, Gasevic D, Maharaj A, Ademi Z, et al. Effectiveness of public health measures in reducing the incidence of covid-19, SARS-CoV-2 transmission, and covid-19 mortality: systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ. 2021;375:e068302.
- 28. Viner RM, Russell SJ, Croker H, Packer J, Ward J, Stansfield C, et al. School closure and management practices during coronavirus outbreaks including COVID-19: a rapid systematic review. The Lancet Child & Adolescent Health. 2020;4(5):397-404.
- 29. Chan JHY, Law CK, Hamblion E, Fung H, Rudge J. Best practices to prevent transmission and control outbreaks of hand, foot, and mouth disease in childcare facilities: A systematic review. Hong Kong Medical Journal. 2017;23(2):177-90.
- 30. Getz WM, Carlson C, Dougherty E, Porco Francis TCs, Salter R. An Agent-Based Model of School Closing in Under-Vacccinated Communities During Measles Outbreaks. Agent Dir Simul Symp. 2016;2016.
- 31. Australia CDN. Measles: CDNA National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. CDNA2019.
- 32. Australia CDN. Invasive Meningococcal Disease: CDNA National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. CDNA2017.
- 33. Hogberg L, Henriques Normark B, Ringberg H, Stenqvist K, Fredlund H, Geli P, et al. The impact of active intervention on the spread of penicillin-resistant Streptococcus pneumoniae in Swedish daycare centres. Scandinavian journal of infectious diseases. 2004;36(9):629-35.
- 34. McNeil JC, Flores AR, Kaplan SL, Hulten KG. The Indirect Impact of the SARS-CoV-2 Pandemic on Invasive Group a Streptococcus, Streptococcus Pneumoniae and Staphylococcus Aureus Infections in Houston Area Children. The Pediatric infectious disease journal. 2021;40(8):e313-e6.
- 35. Australia CDN. Hepatitis A: National Guidelines for Public Health Units. In: Health Do, editor. CDNA2018.
- 36. Campbell M, McKenzie JE, Sowden A, Katikireddi SV, Brennan SE, Ellis S, et al. Synthesis without meta-analysis (SWiM) in systematic reviews: reporting guideline. BMJ. 2020;368:l6890.
- 37. Organization WH. Infection prevention and control in primary care: a toolkit of resources. In: IGO. LCB-N-S, editor. Geneva2021.